DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 474 659		EC 309 483

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TITLE	The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Age Students. Final Report.
INSTITUTION	Kansas Univ., Lawrence. Beach Center on Families and Disability.
SPONS AGENCY	Special Education Programs (ED/OSERS), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	2002-12-16
NOTE	302p.
CONTRACT	H024B990001
PUB TYPE	Reports - Descriptive (141)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF01/PC13 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Curriculum Development; Demonstration Programs; *Developmental Disabilities; Early Childhood Education; *Interpersonal Competence; Mental Retardation; Problem Solving; *Special Education Teachers; Teacher Education; *Teaching Methods; *Teaching Models
IDENTIFIERS	Kansas; Texas

ABSTRACT

This final report describes the activities and outcomes of a federally funded project designed to enable teachers of young children (ages 5-8) with mental retardation, cognitive disabilities and other developmental disabilities to teach problem solving and self-determination related skills in multiple districts across Texas and Kansas. The project provided teachers with information on a model of teaching they could use to develop curricula and instructional strategies to enhance skills like social problem solving and other social skills, self-awareness, self-knowledge, choice-making, decision-making and non-social problem solving skills, and goal setting attainment skills. Through the auspices of this model demonstration project, project staff were able to develop the "Self-Determination Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Age Students," evaluate its efficacy, develop user-friendly teacher and parent guides to implementing the model, and widely disseminate information on the model. The project's activities showed conclusively that teachers can implement this instructional model to teach problem-solving skills and promote self-determination. Four appendices include (1) Goals and Objectives; (2) Teacher's Guide to the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction; (3) a Parent's Guide; and (4) journal articles and other information. (Author/SG)

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The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Age Students

Final Report

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Part D
U.S. Department of Education
Grant Number H024B990001 (formerly H024B70059)
CFDA: 84.024B
Model Demonstration Projects for Young Children with Disabilities Program

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December 16, 2002

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The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Age Students

Model Demonstration Project for Young Children with Disabilities Program

II. Abstract

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Aged Students enabled teachers of young children with mental retardation and other cognitive and developmental disabilities to teach problem solving and self-determination related skills in multiple districts across Texas and Kansas. Materials enabling teachers in other districts to implement the model have been developed and are widely available through the Beach Center's publication network.

The early elementary years (ages 5 – 8) are a critical time in the development of component elements of self-determination (e.g., *acting as the primary causal agent in one's life and making choices and decisions regarding one's quality of life, free from undue external influence or interference,*" Wehmeyer, 1996). Most teachers working with students at this age recognize the value of and work to promote critical thinking skills, including effective problem-solving, and social skills. There are, however, few instructional models that teachers working with young children with cognitive disabilities can employ, and many of the existing models are overly teacher-directed and may limit opportunities for students to learn critical self-determination skills. The project provided teachers information on a model of teaching they can use to develop curricula and instructional strategies to enhance skills like social problem solving and other social skills, self-awareness, self-knowledge, choice-making, decision-making and non-social problem solving skills, and goal setting and attainment skills.

Through the auspices of this model demonstration project, project staff were able to develop the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Age Students, evaluate its efficacy to improve problem solving and self-determination related outcomes for young children with disabilities, develop user-friendly teacher and parent guides to implementing the model, and widely disseminate information on the model through refereed journal articles, international, national, regional and local presentations, and through the web-based dissemination of the guides. The project's activities showed conclusively that teachers can implement this instructional model to teach problem-solving skills and promote self-determination.

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IV. Goals and Objectives of the Project

Goals, Objectives and Sub-objectives		
Goal 1: Develop the model for grades K-3	Outcome	
Objective 1.1: Review literature related to development of self-determination	• Available citations found and used to improve model	
Objective 1.2: Revise model using information obtained through review of literature.	• Model revised	
Objective 1.2.1 Include developmentally appropriate language for students	• Students will understand terms	
Objective 1.2.2 Identify teaching methods/models for use/illustration in model	• Teachers will be able to use model	
Objective 1.2.3 Include parent input as information source	• Parents included in model	
Objective 1.2.4: Develop collaborative method for parents and teachers to assist students	• Parent - teacher -student interaction method in place	
Goal 2: Complete draft version of teacher and parent guides		
Objective 2.1: Include revised model description	• Model described	
Objective 2.2: Incorporate parent -teacher -student interaction suggestions	• Interaction methods included in guides	
Objective 2.3: Distribute draft version	• Guides reviewed by stakeholders and committees	
Objective 2.4: Revise guides and distribute for 2nd review	• Revision approved by reviewers	
Goal 3: Conduct initial implementation and revise model.		
Objective 3.1: Constitute research sample	• Research sample obtained	
Objective 3.1.1: Contact school district	• School district approval	
Objective 3.1.2 Recruit participants (teachers and students)	• Adequate # teachers/students	
Objective 3.1.2.1 Identify teachers	• Teachers identified	
Objective 3.1.2.2 Identify students	• At least 3 students per teacher	
Objective 3.1.2.3 Ensure gender, ethnic representation	• Gender, ethnic representation	
Objective 3.1.3 Obtain informed consent	• Informed consent	
Objective 3.2: Prepare for data collection	• Methods in place for data	
Objective 3.2.1 Ensure adequate protocols/ materials	• Materials adequate/ students	
Objective 3.2.2 Ensure materials for teachers/ parents	• Materials adequate/ adults	
Objective 3.3: Conduct teacher training	• Teachers trained	
Objective 3.3.1: Schedule training on mutually agreeable days	• Training scheduled	
Objective 3.3.2: Provide for substitute in classroom	• Substitutes paid	
Objective 3.4: Begin implementation	• Field test of model begun	
Objective 3.4.1: Collect data	• Scales completed, initial GAS	
Objective 3.4.2: Identify content areas	• Initial goals set by students	
Objective 3.4.3: Assist teacher in determining when student and teacher meetings should occur	• Additional meetings set	
Objective 3.4.4: Assist teacher in implementation	• Monitor	
Objective 3.5: Evaluate Model and Analyze Data	• Model efficacy determined	
Objective 3.5.1: Conduct interviews: student, teacher, parent	• Model participants interviewed	
Objective 3.5.2: Use Goal Attainment Scaling process	• GAS completed	
Objective 3.5.3: Synthesize results of measures	• Results interpreted	
Objective 3.6: Revise Model and materials	• Model and materials revised	
Objective 3.6.1: Revise evaluation procedures	• Evaluation procedures revised	
Objective 3.6.2: Obtain advice on revised model and materials from consultants and committees	• Advice obtained from consultants	
Objective 3.6.3: Make final revisions in Model, Teacher's Guide, and Parent's Guide.	• Final revision completed	

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Goal 4: Conduct second implementation of model		
Objective 4.1: Constitute research sample	• Research sample obtained	
Objective 4.1.1: Implement in Kansas and Texas	• School districts approved	
Objective 4.1.2: Recruit participants (teachers and students)	• Adequate # teachers/ students	
Objective 4.1.2.1: Identify teachers	• Teachers identified	
Objective 4.1.2.2: Identify students	• At least 3 students per teacher	
Objective 4.1.2.3: Ensure gender, ethnic representation	• Gender, ethnic representation	
Objective 4.1.3: Obtain informed consent	• Informed consent	
Objective 4.2: Prepare for data collection	• Methods in place for data	
Objective 4.2.1: Ensure adequate protocols/ materials	• Adequate materials/ students	
Objective 4.2.2: Ensure materials for teacher and parents	• Adequate materials/ adults	
Objective 4.3: Conduct limited teacher training	• Teachers trained	
Objective 4.3.1: Schedule training on mutually agreeable days	• Training scheduled	
Objective 4.4: Begin implementation	• Field test of model begun	
Objective 4.4.1: Collect baseline data	• Scales and initial GAS	
Objective 4.4.2: Assist teacher with helping students set initial goal	• Initial goals set by students	
Objective 4.4.3: Assist teacher in determining when student and teacher meetings should occur	• Additional meetings set	
Objective 4.4.4: Assist teacher in the process of student-directed learning	• Monitor	
Objective 4.5: Evaluate Model and Analyze Data	• Efficacy of model determined	
Objective 4.5.1: Conduct interviews: student, teacher, parent	• Model participants interviewed	
Objective 4.5.2: Use Goal Attainment Scaling process	• Goal Attainment Scaling completed	
Objective 4.5.3 Synthesize results of measures	• Results interpreted	
Objective 4.6: Revise Model and materials	• Model revised	
Objective 4.6.1: Incorporate revisions into model	• Model revised	
Objective 4.6.2: Revise evaluation procedures	• Evaluation procedures revised	
Objective 4.6.3: Obtain advice on revised model from consultants and committees	• Advice obtained from consultants	
Objective 4.6.4: Make final revisions in model	• Final revision completed	
Objective 4.6.5: Incorporate changes in teacher and parent guides	• Teacher and parent guides revised	
Goal 5: Conduct Dissemination activities		
Objective 5.1: Produce sufficient number of Teacher and Parent guides.	• Guides produced	
Objective 5.2: Send information on guides to The Arc Now for dissemination to 1,100 chapters of The Arc	• Information presented	
Objective 5.3: Conduct regional workshops at chapters of The Arc	• 6 workshops conducted	
Objective 5.4: Post information on The Arc's Home Page on the World Wide Web	• Information posted on web site	
Objective 5.5: Make parents and teachers guides available through The Arc's publication catalog	• Guides available for purchase	
Objective 5.6: Write articles for professional journals and submit for publication.	• Articles written and submitted	

A complete listing of goals along with project accomplishments for each goal is included in **Appendix A.**

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V. Conceptual Framework

Self-Determination

We have validated a functional model of self-determination where self-determined behavior is defined by the function of an individual's actions or behaviors. Self-determination refers to "*acting as the primary causal agent in one's life and making choices and decisions regarding one's quality of life free from undue external influence or interference*" (Wehmeyer, 1992; 1996). An act or event is self-determined if the individual's action(s) reflected four essential characteristics: (1) the individual acted autonomously; (2) the behaviors were self-regulated; (3) the person initiated and responded to event(s) in a "psychologically empowered" manner; and (4) the person acted in a self-realizing manner (Wehmeyer, 1996a; Wehmeyer, Kelchner & Richards, 1996). Briefly, behavior is *autonomous* if the person acts (a) according to his or her own preferences, interests and/or abilities, and (b) independently, free from undue external influence or interference. Behavior is *self-regulated* when individuals make decisions about what skills to use in a situation, examine the task at hand and their available repertoire, and formulate, enact and evaluate a plan of action, with revisions when necessary. Individuals act in a *psychologically empowered* manner when they do so based on the beliefs that (a) they have the capacity to perform behaviors needed to influence outcomes in their environment and (b) if they perform such behaviors, anticipated outcomes will result. *Self-realized* people use a comprehensive, and reasonably accurate, knowledge of themselves and their strengths and limitations to capitalize on this knowledge (Wehmeyer, et al., 1996).

There are a number of component elements whose acquisition and development are integral to the emergence of the four essential characteristics of self-determination (Wehmeyer, 1996a). It is at this level that instructional efforts to promote self-determination will be focused. These component elements include: (a) choice-making skills; (b) decision-making skills; (c) problem-solving skills; (d) goal setting and attainment skills; (e) self-observation, evaluation and reinforcement skills; (f) internal locus of control; (g) positive attributions of efficacy and outcome expectancy; (h) self-awareness; and (i) self-knowledge.

Self-determination is usually associated with adolescence or adulthood. There are valid societal and developmental reasons young children are not seen as "self-determined." The emergence of self-determination is part of the process of individuation, e.g., the formation of an individual's personal identity and the development of "one's sense of self and the forging of a special place for oneself within the social order" (Damon, 1983; p. 2). Just as there are identifiable developmental progressions in the emergence of cognitive processes or moral reasoning, so too are there developmental progressions to the emergence of self-determination. And, just as children who have not attained critical milestones in some cognitive abilities cannot be expected to use fully mature cognitive schemas, so too children who have not achieved critical milestones in the development of self-determination cannot be expected to be "self-determined" (Wehmeyer, 1996b). Because young children are not yet either allowed nor developmentally capable of being autonomous and self-regulating does not, however, abrogate the need to enable all children, including children with mental retardation, to learn and develop the attitudes and abilities they will need to achieve this outcome. Self-determination may be an adult outcome, but it is only achieved if there is a lifelong focus on its development and acquisition (Sands & Wehmeyer, 1996).

We have proposed a model of the development of self-determination (described subsequently) based on this definitional framework, upon which project activities will be built. Doll, Sands, Wehmeyer, & Palmer (1996) stated:

> Newborns do not enter the world self-determined, but instead become self-determined through learning across multiple environments and through development within multiple domains. It is unfortunate, then, that most efforts to understand and support self-determination have dealt solely with adolescents and adults, overlooking and sometimes excluding a developmental perspective on the emergence of this outcome" (p. 65).

V. Model Development and Evaluation Activities

Model Development

Joyce and Weil (1980) defined a model of teaching as "a plan or pattern that can be used to shape curriculums (long term courses of study), to design instructional materials, and to guide instruction in the classroom and other settings" (p. 1). Such models are derived from theories about human behavior, learning, or cognition and effective teachers employ multiple models of teaching, taking into account the unique characteristics of the learner and types of learning. Models constitute a basic repertoire for teaching and are designed to increase student learning and help teachers become more effective at what they do best – teach (Joyce and Weil, 1980).

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. (Mithaug, Wehmeyer, Agran, Martin & Palmer, 1998; Wehmeyer, Palmer, Agran, Mithaug & Martin, 2000) was designed to provide a model of teaching to enable educators to teach students to self-direct the instructional process and, at the same time, enhance their self-determination. *The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* is based on the component elements of self-determination (Wehmeyer, 1999), the process of self-regulated problem solving, and research on student-directed learning. It is appropriate for students with and without disabilities across a wide range of content areas, and enables teachers to engage students in their educational programs by increasing opportunities to self-direct learning. The model is adapted from a format developed initially for adolescents (Wehmeyer et al., 2000), and the student questions and supports are identical for adolescents. However, the focus on interests and selecting goals is adapted for younger students. For students in early elementary grades (K-3), starting the process of becoming self-determined before adolescence gives added time for building the children's capacity for choice, decision making, goal setting and problem solving that are essential for later self-determination.

Implementation of the model consists of a three-phase instructional process depicted in Tables 2, 3, and 4. Each instructional phase presents a problem to be solved by the student. The student solves each problem by posing and answering a series of four *Student Questions* (per phase) that students learn, modify to make their own, and apply to reach self-selected goals. Each question is linked to a set of *Teacher Objectives*. Each instructional phase includes a list of *Educational Supports* identified that teachers can use to enable students to self-direct learning.

The *Student Questions* in the model are constructed to direct the student through a problem-solving sequence in each instructional phase. The solutions to the problems in each phase lead to the problem-solving sequence in the next phase. Their construction was based on theory in the problem-solving and self-regulation literature that suggests there is a means-ends problem solving sequence that must be followed for any person's actions to produce results to satisfy their needs and interests (Bransford & Stein, 1993, Agran & Wehmeyer, 1999). Teachers implementing the model teach students to solve a sequence of problems to construct a means-ends chain – a causal sequence – that moves them from where they are to where they want to be (a goal state), (Mithaug, Wehmeyer, Agran, Martin & Palmer, 1998).

To answer the questions in this sequence, students are supported to regulate their own problem solving by setting goals to meet needs, constructing plans to meet goals, and adjusting actions to complete plans. Thus, each instructional phase poses a problem the student must solve (What is my goal? What is my plan? What have I learned?) by, in turn, solving a series of problems posed by the questions in each phase. The four questions differ from phase to phase, but represent identical steps in the problem-solving sequence. That is, students answering the questions must: (1) identify the problem, (2) identify potential solutions to the problem, (3) identify barriers to solving the problem, and (4) identify consequences of each solution. These steps are the fundamental steps in any problem-solving process and they form the means-end problem-solving sequence represented by the *Student Questions* in each phase and enable the student to solve the problem posed in each instructional phase. Younger students are able to answer the questions, as they proceed through the model, since teachers adapt these to meet the understanding and developmental needs of the student.

The *Student Questions* are written in first-person voice in a relatively simple format with the intention that they are the starting point for discussion between the teacher and the student. Our modifications to ensure that young children could progress through the questions are described subsequently.

The first time a teacher uses the model with a student, the initial step in the implementation process is to read the question with or to the student, discuss what the question means and then, if necessary, change the wording to enable that student to better understand the intent of the question. Such wording changes must, however, be made such that the problem-solving intent of the question remains intact. For example, changing *Student Question 1* from "What do I want to learn?" to "What is my goal?" changes the nature of the question. The *Teacher Objectives* associated with each *Student Question* provide direction for possible wording changes. It is perhaps less important that actual changes in the words occur than that students take ownership over the process and adopt the question as their own, instead of having questions imposed on them. Going through this process several times as the student progresses through the model should result in a set of questions that a student accepts as his or her own.

The *Teacher Objectives* within the model are just that -- the objectives a teacher will be trying to accomplish by implementing the model. The objectives provide suggestions for teachers to enable and support students to work through the *Student Questions* by scaffolding instruction, using direct teaching strategies, or collaborating with students to determine the best strategies to achieve goals. In each instructional phase, the objectives are linked directly to the *Student Questions*. These objectives can be met by utilizing strategies provided in the *Educational Supports* section of the model. The *Teacher Objectives* provide, in essence, a road map to assist the teacher to enable the student to solve the problem stated in the student question. For example, regarding the first *Student Question*: What do I want to learn?, *Teacher Objectives* linked to this question comprise the activities in which students should be engaged to answer this question. In this case it involves enabling students to identify their specific strengths and instructional needs, to identify and communicate preferences, interests, beliefs and values, and to prioritize their instructional needs. As teachers use the model it is likely that they can generate more objectives that are relevant to the question, and they are encouraged to do so. Before beginning the model with younger students, it is often necessary to talk in general about what goals are, as well as have students identify some of their interests.

The *Educational Supports* are not actually a part of the model, per se, but are what Joyce and Weil (1980) refer to as the model's *syntax* -- how the model is implemented. However, because the implementation of this model requires teachers to teach students to self-direct learning, we believe it is important to identify some strategies and supports that could be used to successfully implement the model. The majority of these supports are derived from the self-management literature. A variety of strategies, such as choice making (Cooper et al, 1992) , goal setting (Schunk, 1985; Hayes et al, 1985), communication skills training (Mandebaum & Wilson, 1989; Kelly et al, 1979), and self-monitoring techniques (Smith & Nelson, 1997; Agran & Martin, 1987), have been used to teach students, including students with severe disabilities, how to manage their own behavior. Wehmeyer, Agran, and Hughes (1998) provided a compilation of strategies and suggestions for teaching self-determination strategies to students with disabilities.

The emphasis in the model on the use of instructional strategies and educational supports that are student-directed provides another means of teaching students to teach themselves. The effectiveness of *the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* has already been shown with adolescents (Wehmeyer, Palmer, Agran, Mithaug & Martin, 2000). Young children are also able to set goals with the support of their teachers. With the use of the *Student Questions*, students will learn a self-regulated problem solving strategy to use in goal attainment. Concurrently, teaching students to begin to use student-directed learning strategies provides skills that enable them to begin to become the causal agent in their lives.

Student-directed learning strategies are used in combination with teacher-direction in this model. The purpose of any model of teaching is to promote student learning and growth. There are circumstances in which the most effective instructional method or strategy to achieve a particular educational outcome will be a teacher-directed strategy. One misinterpretation of self-determination is that it is synonymous with *independent performance*. That is, people misinterpret self-determination as meaning that you do everything yourself. However, causal agents do not necessarily do everything for themselves, but instead are the catalysts in making things happen in their lives. Students who are considering what plan of action to implement to achieve a self-selected goal can recognize that teachers have expertise in instructional strategies and take full advantage of that expertise.

Validation of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. As stated previously, the purpose of any model of instruction is to promote student learning. Teachers use models of instruction to drive curriculum and assessment development and to design instructional methods, materials and strategies, all with the intent of improving the quality of the instructional experience and, presumably, enhancing student achievement. Thus, the first requirement of any model of instruction is that teachers can use the model to 'teach' students educationally valued skills or concepts. We have proposed in this study that the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* has the added benefit of beginning the process of becoming self-determined in grades K-3, as well as in adolescence. Previous validation activities have focused on ensuring that adolescents with disabilities achieve educationally-valued goals when provided instruction using the model and examining the impact of the model on student self-determination.

Wehmeyer, Palmer, et al., (2000) conducted a field test of the model with 21 teachers responsible for the instruction of adolescents receiving special education services in two states (Texas and Wisconsin). Each teacher was asked to identify at least one but no more than three students with whom to implement the model, resulting in a total of 40 students (mean age = 17.23, mean IQ = 55) with mental retardation (*n* = 13), learning disabilities (*n* = 17), or emotional or behavioral disorders (*n* = 10). The efficacy of the model to enable students to achieve educationally-valued goals was examined using the Goal Attainment Scaling (GAS) process (described in the Methods section). In addition to this indicator of goal attainment, we also collected pre- and post-intervention data regarding student self-determination using *The Arc's Self-Determination Scale* (Wehmeyer, 1996), a student self-report measure of self-determination, and administered a questionnaire examining student goal-orientation adapted from the *AIR Self-Determination Scale* (Wolman, Campeau, Dubois, Mithaug, & Stolarski, 1994).

The field-test indicated that the model was effective in enabling students to attain educationally valued goals. From a total of 43 distinct goals, teachers rated 25% of the goals on which students received instruction as having been achieved as expected and rated progress on 30% of the total goals as having exceeded expectations. Of the remainder, teachers indicated that students made progress on an additional 25% of their goal, though they did not fully achieve them, and only 20% of the goals were rated as indicating no student progress on the goal. Additionally, there were significant differences in pre- and post-intervention scores on self-determination, with post-intervention scores more positive than pre-intervention scores.

Agran, Blanchard, and Wehmeyer (2000) examined the efficacy of the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* for adolescents with severe disabilities. Unlike the previous study, the research design utilized by these researchers involved a delayed multiple-baseline across three-groups design. Students collaborated with their teachers to implement the first phase of the model and, as a result, identified one goal as a target behavior. Prior to implementing phase 2 of the model, teachers and researchers collected baseline data on student performance of these goals. At staggered intervals subsequent to baseline data collection, teachers implemented the model with students and data collection continued through the end of instructional activities and into a maintenance phase. As was the case with the field-test study, Agran and colleagues also collected data about goal attainment using the *GAS* procedure.

As before, the model enabled teachers to teach students educationally valued goals. The mean *GAS* score for the total sample was 60, indicating that, on the average, students exceeded teachers expectations for achievement of their goals. Twenty-one percent of the standardized *GAS* scores indicated that students attained a satisfactory level of achievement, while 68% of the scores indicated that students exceeded expectations of their teachers in relation to goal attainment. Only 10% of the students ($n = 2$) were rated as essentially indicating no progress on the goal. Thus, in total, 89% ($n = 17$) of the participants achieved their personal goals at or above the teacher-rated expected outcome levels.

Early Childhood Version of Model The early childhood version of the model was developed to provide teachers/parents with a means to enable their students, sons, or daughters to become "causal agents" in their lives. As with the adolescent version, implementation of the model consisted of a three-phase instructional process. Each instructional phase presents a problem to be solved by posing and answering a series of four Student Questions per phase that children learn, modify to make their own, and apply to reach self-selected goals. These questions were modified slightly to be more accessible to younger children and, perhaps most importantly, modifications to the presentation of the questions were made using iconic and graphic images depicting the themes in each question. Each question in this version is linked to a set of Teacher/Parent Objectives and each instructional phase includes a list of Educational Supports identified that adults can use to enable children to self-direct learning. In each instructional phase, the child is the primary agent for choices, decisions, and actions, even when eventual actions are adult-directed.

The Teacher/Parent Objectives are the objectives an adult will be trying to accomplish by implementing the model. In each instructional phase, the objectives are linked directly to the Student Questions. These objectives can be met by utilizing strategies provided in the Educational Supports section of the model. The Teacher/Parent Objectives provide, in essence, a road map to assist the adult to enable the student to solve the problem stated in the student question.

The Educational Supports identify instructional strategies that can be implemented to assist and enable students to achieve their self-selected goals. While primarily for use by educators within school environments, there are many aspects of these instructional strategies that could be used by parents and family members.

The characteristics of young children in these areas impact the implementation of the model with this population. As stressed earlier, young children are not ready to independently set goals, are not accurate judges of their own strengths and limitations, do not effectively evaluate progress toward goals, and require considerable support in all these activities. The purpose of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction when used with young children is not to enable them to "independently" set goals, design an action plan, and self-evaluate progress toward that goal. Such lofty outcomes are the focus for older students. For younger children, the purpose is to begin to engage them in learning a process that will, in future years, result in greater capacity to solve problems, set goals and so forth. To some degree, the purpose of the model in the early years is to provide children with a systematic opportunity to participate in instructional activities that revolve around problem solving, to think further about their strengths and limitations, to participate in goal setting and the implementation of an action plan to achieve that goal, and to engage in some rudimentary self-evaluation. So, for example, activities in which students in grades K – 3 can engage when their teacher or parent uses the model to teach specific skills include the identification of multiple options for setting goals and solving problems, and the identification of abilities and interests, evaluation of choices and decisions for efficacy. All of these activities are consistent with the principles of developmentally appropriate practices.

The model has been developed primarily for implementation within educational settings, but we believe that by incorporating the steps of the model into day-to-day interactions with their son or daughter, parents and family members can enable them to become more self-determined and, eventually, to become more autonomous and independent. There are innumerable circumstances within the home when children need to identify what they want or need to do and how they might achieve that outcome. Particularly in the preschool and early elementary years, it is important to involve children in such activities, enabling them to identify their interests, strengths and limitations, supporting them to identify a goal related to this identification process, and enabling them to take steps to achieve that goal, while engaging in some rudimentary self-evaluation along the way. Practically speaking, it is in the home where most of us learn how to set and attain goals, make decisions and express preferences.

Evaluation of the Early Childhood Version

Participants

The primary audience for a model of instruction is teachers. Fourteen teachers from two states (Texas and Kansas) were recruited to implement the Early Elementary version of the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction*. Teachers were nominated to participate by school administrators and received an honorarium for their participation in the project activities. Students taught by these educators (n = 50) were enrolled in Kindergarten through third grade in 11 elementary schools across five school districts (1 rural, 3 suburban, and 1 urban) in the two states (Texas n = 34; Kansas n = 16). Table 1 provides information about student age, special education category, and grade. Students ranged from 5 to 9 years of age, with a mean of 7.92 years (SD = 1.30), and most students were receiving special education supports in one or more categories. Children who did not have a special education label were either in the assessment process to determine special education eligibility or were receiving math or reading enrichment services in their school. The sample included 32 male and 18 female students. The ethnicity of the students included the following: Caucasian (n = 23), African American (n = 20), Hispanic (n = 6), and an Asian student (n = 1). Data were collected during the 1998 - 1999 and 1999 - 2000 school years. Informed consent was obtained from parents of all students.

Table 1

Age, educational label, and grade of students.

Grade and Age	Learning Disability	Mental Retardation	Speech Impaired	Gifted	No Label*	Total
K						
Age 5	1	1	0	0	2	4
Age 6	0	0	1	0	0	1
						n=5
1st Grade						
Age 6	1	0	0	0	2	3
Age 7	0	0	0	0	3	3

						n=6
2nd						
Grade	2	1	0	0	1	4
Age 7	1	1	1	0	2	5
Age 8						n=9
3rd Grade						
Age 8	5	0	2	0	1	8
Age 9	10	3	1	2	5	21
Age 10	1	0	0	0	0	1
						n=30
Total	21	6	5	2	16	50

* No Label indicates students who were in process of being assessed for possible special education identification or were identified for additional support for math or reading through Title 1 services.

The 14 teachers who supported students in the study ranged in age from 26 years to 57 years of age, with a mean age of 38.78 years. All were female and had between 1 and 26 years of experience, with an average of 10.71 years teaching experience. The Texas districts are located in the Dallas and Fort Worth metropolitan areas, and have diverse student populations, including students from Hispanic and African-American families. Students involved were students with mental retardation and other cognitive or developmental disabilities ages 5 to 8 or grades K – 3. These children received some portion or all of their instruction in inclusive settings with appropriate supports. The participating school districts enabled us to ensure that children from various ethnic, racial, and socio-economic groups are involved, as well as students from rural and urban areas.

Procedure

Teachers who participated in the study received training from project staff on the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction*, using both large group (introduction to model) and one-to-one training. Teachers implemented the model in the manner described previously with the exception that project staff created materials that were developmentally and age appropriate, particularly with relation to supporting students to address the *Student Questions* in the model. So, for example, when teachers talked to students about their interests as a means to answer *Student Question 1*, they were provided with a *Student Interest Form* providing a structure for exploring interests (see Figure 4). Students were encouraged to discuss what they liked to do at school and at home and the teacher helped each student to complete the *Student Interest Form*. Students were encouraged to write or draw a picture of their answers, or teachers wrote what the student dictated. Teachers also discussed the meaning of the words 'goal' and 'problem' and talked about setting goals and solving problems with the students either individually or in small groups.

Project staff supported teachers throughout the initial goal setting process by e-mail, telephone contact, and direct visits. Teachers worked directly with students on the model for approximately 2 months.

Instrumentation

The *Goal Attainment Scaling* (*GAS*) process (Kiresuk, Smith & Cardillio, 1994) was used identically in this study and the two previous adolescent studies (Wehmeyer et al., 2000; Agran et al.,2000) described earlier to measure goal attainment and to determine model efficacy. According to Carr (1979) the *GAS* "involves establishing goals and specifying a range of outcomes or behaviors that would indicate progress toward achieving those goals" (p. 89). Each student's *GAS* scale was prepared with 5 potential outcomes identified by the student and/or the teacher as soon as the individual goals were set using the model. These outcomes determine a continuum for knowing when a goal is achieved, from the most unfavorable to the most favorable outcomes on a five-point scale. The mid-point on this scale is the *expected outcome*; that is, what would teachers consider a *satisfactory outcome* from the instructional process. Using a raw-score conversion key for numerical values assigned to each outcome level for the *Goal Attainment Scaling* developed by Cardillo (1994), raw scores can be converted to standardized T-scores with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 to allow comparison between goal areas and subjects, independent of the particular goal area.

When instructional activities were completed, the teacher returned to the 5 potential *GAS* outcomes and identified the outcome that most closely matched the student's actual achievement, and the researcher asked the student about their outcome. The research team talked with students and assisted them in selecting the outcome description that was closest to their perception of goal completion independent of the teacher's evaluation. Students from K-Grade 3 were able to discuss their goal progress, since they had just completed Phase 3 of the model questions, essentially a series of questions to support evaluation. Scoring based on the *GAS* process, as described previously, was then completed. Research personnel also gathered information on student knowledge about an understanding of 'goals' and 'interests' using questions asked before and after using the model. These questions were adapted from the *American Institutes for Research Self-Determination Scale* (Wolman, Campeau, Dubois, Mithaug & Stolarski, 1994). The students were asked whether they knew what the word 'interest' meant, whether they could name one of their interests, whether they knew what the word 'goal' meant, and whether they could give an example of a goal, yielding a 'yes' or 'no' response for each question.

To gather social validation information, after data collection was completed, the 14 teachers filled out a 16- item questionnaire reporting their opinions about the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction*. Students were asked how they felt about their goal outcomes.

VI. Model Evaluation Findings

Results

Model Efficacy. The mean teacher-rated GAS score was 52.90 (ranging from 30 – 70). The mean student-rated GAS score was 54.30 (ranging from 40 to 70). Both means indicate that goal attainment was, on average, at or slightly above what was expected by teachers (who determined the original outcomes). Table 2 provides Goal Attainment Scaling scores by grade level and special education category. In all, only 12% of teacher-rated goals were at or below 40, with 34% rated at 60 or higher, indicating that more students exceeded expectations than failed to achieve them. There were no significant differences between student and teacher GAS scores on a paired-sample t-test, however, the average scores for students with mental retardation were rated somewhat higher by students than by teachers.

Table 2

Student and Teacher Average Ratings of GAS on Goals Set Using the SDLMI.

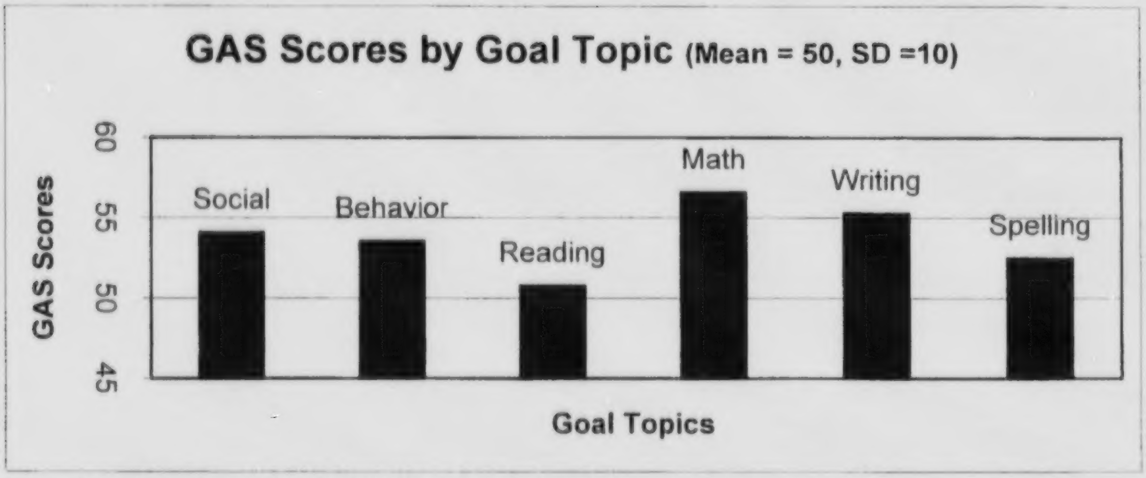
Grade or Disability Category	Mean *GAS* Score* (Student Rated)	Mean *GAS* Score* (Teacher Rated)
K (n = 5)	50.00	56.00
1st Grade (n=6)	60.00	60.83

2nd Grade (n=9)	55.50	51.11
3rd Grade (n=30)	53.50	51.33
Learning Disability (n = 21)	54.28	51.66
Speech Impairment (n = 5)	59.00	63.00
Gifted (n = 2)	65.00	57.50
Mental Retardation (n = 6)	52.50	42.50
No Label (n = 16)	52.18	54.68

*Note: A *GAS* (or *Goal Attainment Scale*) converted T-score of 50 represents an acceptable outcome (that students learned the goal or skill). Scores of 40 or below indicate the student did not achieve an acceptable outcome and scores of 60 and above indicate the student's progress exceeded expectations.

Two of the students with mental retardation rated goals identical with their teachers, four of the student ratings were only one standard deviation (SD = 10) above their teachers, and one student's score was 3 SD (n = 30) above what the teacher rating was. Each of the four grade levels (K-3) had average mean *GAS* scores greater than 50, indicating that the model was effective for younger as well as older students. There were no significant differences on *GAS* scores by grade, $X^2 = (18, N = 50) = 13.54$, $p = 0.76$. An analysis of *GAS* scores by goal content area also yielded no significant differences, $X^2 (24, N = 50) = 26.22$, p, 0.34. Forty-one of the students set an academic goal, nine students had a behavioral or social goal. All goals were appropriate for the particular grade level, i.e. students in Kindergarten set goals in counting, following directions, and writing names.

Figure 1



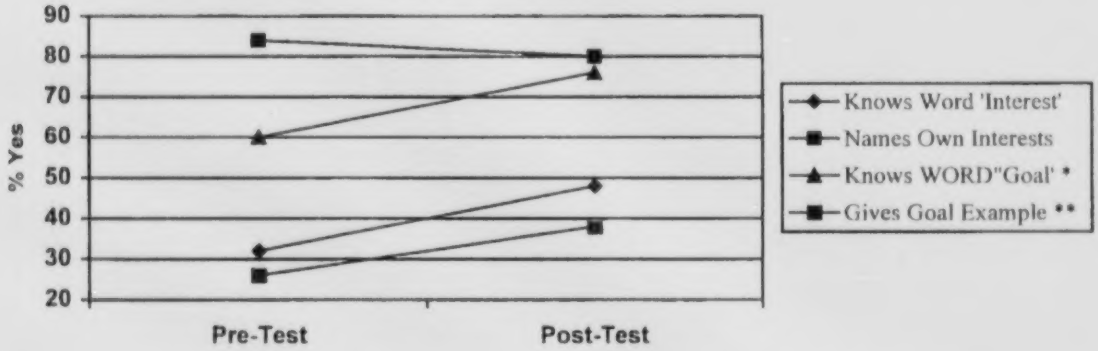
Note: Since the teachers and students both rated student goals, the scores in Figure 5 are the average of the two ratings

Within academic goals, subject area goals included reading/pre-reading, (n = 16), math and number concepts (n = 11), handwriting (n = 9), and spelling (n = 5). The model was equally effective for each of these areas, as seen in *Figure 1*, with all areas yielding scores above 50.

Goal and Interest Knowledge. Figure 2 depicts student responses to the goals and interest questions. The majority of students were able to name one or more of their own interests both before and after instruction using the model, but in the three other areas students showed improvement after intervention. There were significant differences pre-and post-test, $t(49) = -2.22$, $p = .03$ (two-tailed) on the paired-samples t test for the question concerning knowledge of the meaning of the word *goal*. Students were also able to provide significantly more goal examples $t\ (49) = -1.95$, $p = .05$ (two-tailed). In addition, teachers were asked before and after using the model whether a student knew that a goal is something that you want to do or learn. Prior to the intervention, teachers indicated affirmatively (e.g., student did know) for 15 students, whereas after the intervention teachers indicated that 40 of the 50 students knew this information.

Figure 2

Change in Student Responses to Goal and Interest Questions



* $p = 0.03$ ** $p = 0.05$

Social Validation Information. Teachers indicated that they perceived positive student changes in either behavioral or academic performance as a function of the intervention for 42 of the 50 students. All 14 teachers reported the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* was useful in their classrooms and that they would continue to use the model in their work with children. Eight of the teachers (57%) indicated they had shared information about the model with a colleague. When asked if students shared unsolicited comments about the model with them, 8 teachers (57%) reported that this had occurred. One teacher said that students having success wanted to share it, while another said that a student volunteered: "I am working on my goal! Look here!" After completing Phase 3 of the model, students generally reported that they felt good about meeting their goals, and many students had ideas for other goals to achieve.

Another teacher whose students were working on academic subjects said her students were excited to do better in spelling and reading and had shared that information with her. This teacher had met with a small group of students to talk about "what they wanted to do or learn" in spelling or reading. Each of the students set an individual goal related to something that he or she needed to accomplish: study spelling words for 15 minutes per day and improve in spelling; learn 20 new sight words over several weeks time by reading, writing, and practicing the words in context; or working on printing words with spaces between them, rather than one long continuous stream of letters. These goals were addressed using the student questions in the model framework. Individual students had various reasons why they might have trouble accomplishing the goals, but each of the children were able to set a plan, and later, evaluate their progress using the model. One teacher who supports students in a resource setting said that she realized that she could give up some of her 'power' as a teacher and let the students have more control over what they want to do. Students typically set realistic goals that showed some perception of what they needed to accomplish, as teachers provided scaffolding for this activity. As with the two field tests described in the section concerning model validation, student goals were set in conjunction with teacher support to work on academic or social skills that were a need for the particular student. The process of working through the model questions provides both students and teachers a way to address needs, limitations, barriers to success, as well as accomplishments. When asked, even the youngest students were able to identify some particular need that aligned with standards or benchmarks for progress, either independently or with some negotiation with the teacher. Other examples of elementary goals set by students are listed in Figure 3. Although self-determination is a concept that implies independent action, only through shaping and instruction can students learn to become better choice- and decision-makers, as well as learning to problem solve and set goals.

Figure 3

Examples of Goals Set by Students in Grades K-3

Kindergarten	1) Learn to count to 20. 2) Learn to follow directions in school and at home. 3) Learn to write own name. 4) Learn to write symbols used by other students.
First Grade	1) Improve classroom behavior to avoid negative results. 2) Learn to read sight words in context in three stories. 3) Improve handwriting by writing numbers and letters neatly.
Second Grade	1) Follow classroom rules during general education math class. 2) Writing numbers and their names in words (e.g. 10, ten). 3) Improve spelling. 4) Use computer to write paragraphs and print them to read.
Third Grade	1) Learning math facts – multiplication. 2) Learn addition and subtraction with re-grouping. 3) Improve writing by consistent use of correct punctuation. 4) Improve grades by checking work before turning it in to teacher.

A teacher of younger participants said, "It was very interesting to see what my students wanted to learn at school, that they did have goals and did not come to school just 'to play'". One younger student with mental retardation set a goal to learn the symbols that were beside her name and her peers' names on class work and in storage areas. There was no particular expectation on the part of the teacher for this to happen, but the student wanted to accomplish this task and did so using the model. For example, Mary's name was followed by a flower symbol; John's name had a train beside it. The student practiced drawing the symbols in her free time with teacher guidance, learned the various symbols, and even began to learn to print each of her classmate's names as well. The student was pleased with her progress and set an additional goal about learning to print more names.

VII. Other Project Activities and Project Impact

Results from this model evaluation study supported the efficacy and validity of the use of the Self-*Determined Learning Model of Instruction* with early elementary students. The findings from the *GAS* process indicated that students as young as five years of age can set goals and work through the model (with the assistance and support of their teachers). Teachers in early elementary grades were able to provide the support and guidance that younger children with and without identified disabilities (Title I students and students being evaluated for special needs) needed to complete such a process.

That student and teacher ratings showed no significant differences provided indirect evidence that active student involvement in the educational process, even at this young age, can assist students in evaluating their progress and potential outcomes. Although further support may be needed for young students with mental retardation in self-evaluation of accomplishments, as indicated by the variability of ratings between teachers and students within this category, this process of goal setting is still a viable option for students and teachers. The *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* is designed such that students' self-monitor progress toward their goal and self-evaluate if they are making adequate progress. If students determine that their progress is not adequate, they return to either the goal setting activities of phase 1 to revise their goal or the action planning activities of phase 2. We noted, anecdotally, that when students determined (through phase 3 self-evaluation activities) that they were not progressing on their goal, they were usually able to discuss what went wrong and what they did achieve to the same degree as the teacher could. Students told us that they did not try to work on their goal much, or that they let other activities take precedence. This was achieved by using the model questions to guide student evaluation and discussion with the teacher of what actions were taken (Phase 3, Question 9), the barriers that had been removed (Question 10), and what has changed (Question 11). The model provides a chance for students to verbalize their concerns, as well as their success, in order to move toward self-regulation and building capacity for achievement and later self-determination.

In addition to the potential of the model with regard to future research and training activities, the impact of the project can also be measured in terms of the dissemination of information during 1998-2002 as well as future efforts to promote early awareness of the importance of self-determination for students with disabilities. To date, two Guides for the model have been produced, one journal article has been published and one is in press with a scheduled publication date for 2003. Web site information on the project will be included in the updated forthcoming Beach Center on Disability website. There were a series of training conducted, as described below, and additional trainings are scheduled with interested school districts to support understanding for early self-determination. A detailed description of dissemination activities are listed below.

1) December 1998. A poster was presented by Dr. Susan Palmer at the Division of Early Childhood of The Council for Exceptional Children's annual meeting in December of 1998 in Chicago, IL, to introduce developmental issues related to self-determination in children with developmental disabilities.
2) December 1999. Susan Palmer delivered a presentation at the Division of Early Childhood, Council for Exceptional Children's annual meeting in

Washington, DC. She provided information about the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction and related information on self-determination.

3) Michael Wehmeyer and Susan Palmer published "Self-Determination and Young Children" in the journal, *Early Education & Development* regarding the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary Age Students and developmental information concerning the concept of self-determination. (Wehmeyer, M.L. & Palmer, Susan B. (2000). Promoting the acquisition and development of self-determination in young children with disabilities. *Early Education & Development, 4*, 465-481). The article is in **Appendix D** of this report.
4) April 2000. Dr. Palmer presented a poster in collaboration with Mary Jane Brotherson of Iowa State on the results of the initial field test of the model at the Conference on Research Innovations in Early Intervention (CEIEI 2000), a biennial meeting in San Diego, CA in April 2000.
5) April 2000. A keynote presentation was made by Dr. Palmer about developmental aspects of self-determination at a weekend conference of Families Together, the Kansas Parent Training Information Center.
6) Beginning in October 2000, Dr. Palmer participated in the initial offering of the NEC*TAS Web-based On-Line workshop for project support staff. It related to the dissemination that will be completed when the Beach Center web site is revamped in the near future.
7) November 2000. Dr. Palmer presented an invited workshop at Region VI Educational Service Center in Huntsville, Texas. She shared information

about the model and early self-determination with a number of elementary teachers.

8) December 2000. Dr. Palmer organized a three-member panel from Kansas University and Iowa State to present information regarding self-determination and children birth through 8 years. This submission was presented at DEC's annual conference.

9) Dr. Palmer participated on a local school committee with a group of stakeholders from Lawrence Public Schools attendance area to talk about self-determination and development. She collaborated with service providers and parents from 0-2, 3-5, K-12, and adult age groups to produce Transition Across the Ages through Self-Determination, a document for parents to support the development of self-determination. See **Appendix D** for this 4-page review of the ongoing transition process.

10) February 2001. Dr. Palmer gave a presentation at Oklahoma Council for Exceptional Children in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma on the Early Elementary Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.

11) April 2001. Dr. Palmer and Danna Yeager presented a session on the Early Elementary Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction at the Council on Exceptional Children's annual conference, Kansas City, MO.

12) May 2001. Drs. Palmer and Wehmeyer presented a poster at the AAMR meeting on the Early Elementary Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.

13) In February 2002, Dr. Palmer completed an invited inservice training for teachers in the Edmond, Oklahoma school district on elementary-age self-determination.

14) February 2002. Dr. Palmer presented a workshop at Kansas DEC in Wichita, KS on elementary self-determination.

15) April 2002. Dr. Palmer did a workshop at the International Parent to Parent conference in Philadelphia, PA on the Parent's Guide to Self-Determination.

16) June 2002. Dr. Palmer did a workshop for a group of parents in Leawood, KS for Families Together, the state PTI program.

17) Susan Palmer and Michael Wehmeyer wrote an article describing the model field test results and it has been accepted for publication in the journal, *Remedial and Special Education*. (Palmer, S.B. & Wehmeyer, M.L. (2003) Promoting self-determination in early elementary school: Teaching self-regulated problem solving and goal setting skills. *Remedial and Special Education, 24(2)*).

18) Final copies of *Self-Determined Learning Model for Early Elementary Students: A Parent's Guide* have been published by Drs. Palmer and Wehmeyer and is being disseminated using networks of The Beach Center on Disability, The Arc of the United States, and Parent to Parent.

A Teacher's Guide to Implementing the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction Early Elementary Version has been produced by Drs. Palmer and

Wehmeyer is being disseminated using networks of The Beach Center on Disability, The Arc of the United States, and Parent to Parent.

VIII. Future activities

The need for models promoting problem solving and self-determination in elementary education has been identified. Parents and teachers involved in this project concur that that we can help students be more strategic in terms of problem solving and goal setting at earlier ages. The research and development team at the Beach Center will provide guidance for others who have interest in pursuing work at this level as well as look for additional venues for promoting early self-determination.

IX. Assurance statement

This report has been sent to ERIC and copies of the title page and abstract have been sent to NECTAC for filing.

Appendix A

APPENDIX A

Goals and Objectives

A brief description of project accomplishments on goals and objectives is contained in the following narrative. Page numbers in parentheses indicate where relevant information about the goal/objective can be located in the original approved application. The objectives of the grant have been achieved and yielded results that significantly contribute to the knowledge base regarding self-determination and influence practice in the field. In addition, the information from this award will continue to support the use of developmentally appropriate practice in the early elementary grades for children with disabilities.

Goal 1: *Develop the model for grades K-3* (pp. 17-23)

Objective 1.1: Review literature related to development of self-determination. An initial review of literature was completed to investigate issues related to the development of self-determination. In addition, Internet searches have been conducted to investigate all materials available. An Annotated Bibliography has been prepared and included in the Teacher's Guide, included in **Appendix B**. A Bibliography for Parents also appears in the Parent's Guide, in **Appendix C**. Ongoing information about early self-determination continues to be collected for project files and dissemination.

Objective 1.2: Revise model using information obtained through review of literature. The core model was revised by Michael Wehmeyer and Susan Palmer in April 1998, based on information obtained through the review of literature and from consultants to the project, including educators involved in implementing the adolescent version of the model and experts in early childhood education and self-determination. The final model is presented and explained in the Teacher Guide in **Appendix A,** as well as in Section IV of this report, Conceptual Framework.

Objective 1.2.1: Revise model using information obtained through review of literature. Following the final revision of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction in April 1998, it was determined that the best way to use the theoretical questions of the model was to individually reword them to meet the needs of each child and their situation. When children grades K - 3 meet with their teachers, their general understanding determines how these questions will be reworded for this self-instructional phase of the model. Students use this series of 12 questions, drawn essentially from a problem-solving process, to self-direct learning. When students were asked to think about the questions, it was the general consensus that it would depend on each student and his or her teacher to determine what they understood and what was most useful for them.

Thus, teachers are instructed to explain what each question means to the student, then to work with the student to rephrase each question, if necessary, so that they understand it. At the end of the process, students will have a set of questions that they developed, and over which they have some ownership. This is explained further in the *Teacher's Guide* in **Appendix B**.

Objective 1.2.2: Identify teaching methods/models for use/illustration in model. The Principal Investigator and Project Director identified numerous teaching methods and models designated as Instructional Supports for use in the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Age Students*.

These appear in the *Teacher's Guide* in **Appendix B** and the *Parent's Guide* in **Appendix C**.

Objective 1.2.3: Include parent input as information source.

In the field tests, which began 1998 and 1999, parents were able to give input through the format of a brief interest inventory asking them about their child's interests and the possible goals that their child might choose. The short inventory was sent to parents in combination with the initial project explanation and a request for consent.

Objective 1.2.4: Develop collaborative method for parents and teachers to assist students. A method for collaboration with parents and teachers was field-tested and finalized at the end of the 1999-2000 school year.

Goal 2: *Complete draft version of teacher and parent guides (pp. 24-25)*

Objective 2.1: Include revised Model description.

The model as suggested for parents is included in the *Parent's Guide* in **Appendix C** and the model for teachers appears in the *Teacher's Guide* in **Appendix B.** The model questions are essentially the same, but supports for the model are modified for parental use.

Objective 2.2: Incorporate parent-teacher-student interaction suggestions.

It is recognized by project staff that through effective collaboration with parents, teachers can encourage students to develop the component elements of self-determination (choice making, problem solving etc.) not only at school, but at home. Suggestions gathered from all stakeholders were incorporated into the guides.

Objective 2.3: Distribute draft Version.

The draft version was reviewed by educators. Teachers, parents and members of a review committee representing educators, The Arc of the United States, and Parent to Parent completed a second review.

Objective 2.4: Revise guides and distribute for 2nd review.

Following revision by project staff, the final versions were completed.

Goal 3: *Conduct initial implementation and revise model. (pp. 25-30)*

Objective 3.1: Constitute research sample.

Two school districts participated in the initial field test of this model in 1998-99.

Objective 3.1.1: Contact school district. One school district in Dallas County and one in Tarrant County are the two Texas locations that participated in the initial field test of the model for this grant. Research approval was granted to The Arc of the United States by the appropriate district committees and personnel.

Objective 3.1.2: Recruit participants (teachers and students). Participants were recruited in the school district in Dallas County through contact with the area coordinator and in the Tarrant County district through the director of special education. In total, seven teachers at the two sites and twenty-one students participated in the model trial during the 1998-99 school year. Teachers identified students receiving special education services in elementary school settings.

Objective 3.1.3: Obtain informed consent. Teachers obtained signed permission forms from parents of students selected for the research project.

Objective 3.2: Prepare for data collection. Susan Palmer, Project Director, got study materials prepared for assessment.

Objective 3.3: Conduct teacher training. Susan Palmer and Danna Yeager, Project Coordinator, conducted separate teacher training sessions for each school district. Teacher substitute costs were reimbursed to each district.

Objective 3.4: Begin implementation.

Implementation began with the initial training held in each district in early November of 1998. Teachers immediately began to recruit student participants. Students worked with their teachers using the model.

Objective 3.5: Evaluate model and analyze data.

The model was evaluated at the student level with the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale, Goals Questionnaire, and The Developmental Ability Scale-Verbal Comprehension Subtest, and at the teacher level using qualitative information obtained in the Teacher Assessment Form and the Goal Attainment Scaling form. Susan Palmer, Project Director, participated in two three-day NECTAS Technical Assistance session on evaluation in September 1998 and May of 1999,to review and minimally revise evaluation materials prior to using them in the initial field test. Students and teachers who participated during the school year were interviewed by project personnel as a measure of model efficacy.

Objective 3.6: Revise model and materials.

Materials for use with students were reviewed and revised as teacher and coordinator feedback was gained during the initial field test. The model appears in the *Teacher's Guide* in **Appendix B** of this report.

Goal 4: *Conduct second implementation of the model. (pp.17, 25-28)*

Objective 4.1: Constitute the research sample.

Research proposals were accepted by two school districts in Kansas and three school districts in the Dallas-Fort Worth area to conduct research on the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary Age Students in both Texas and Kansas. In Kansas, teachers in a suburban school district and a rural cooperative participated for the 1999-2000 school year. The Dallas County district and the Tarrant County district continued to participate for the second year in field testing. In addition, a second large district in Dallas County also participated in the 1999-2000 field test. A total of 13 teachers and 34 students participated in the second field test of the model.

Objective 4.2: Prepare for data collection.

The Project Director and Project coordinator revised the materials for pre- and post-testing, as needed, and prepared materials for sites in Texas and Kansas.

Objective 4.3: Conduct limited teacher training.

Training was conducted for all school districts by the Project Director and the Project Coordinator.

Objective 4.4: Begin implementation.

The field testing began in all states. Students were pre-tested and began setting goals, with support from their teachers and parents.

Objective 4.5: Evaluate model and analyze data.

At the close of the field test the model evaluation and data analysis were completed. Results were compiled and presented in journal format. The article accepted for publication in Remedial and Special Education is described under Goal 5 and contained in **Appendix D**.

Objective 4.6: Revise model and materials.

The materials for teachers and parents was organized into a final format for publication and distribution.

Goal 5: *Conduct dissemination activities (pp.16-17)*:

Scheduled activities included information disseminated to 1,100 chapters of The Arc, posting information on The Arc's Web Page conducting seminars, presenting information on the model at national conferences, and writing articles for publication.

New information regarding an additional avenue of dissemination:

Due to the move of the Principal Investigator and Project Director to the Beach Center on Families and Disability and the transfer of the grant to the University of Kansas, a whole additional network for dissemination has been identified. The Beach Center has a newsletter and publications catalog that is published quarterly and is distributed nationwide to a large audience of professionals and parents. Of course, the Beach Center and The Arc will be dissemination partners for this and other products of the Self-Determination Projects (formerly conducted under the auspices the Bill Sackter Center on Self-Determination of The Arc of the U.S.). Since the Principal Investigator, Michael Wehmeyer, and all original project people continue to work on this grant, a new location brought very few changes to the substance of the grant and enhances the distribution of materials greatly.

Dissemination of Information to date:

19) December 1998. A poster was presented by Dr. Susan Palmer at the Division of Early Childhood of The Council for Exceptional Children's annual meeting in December of 1998 in Chicago, IL, to introduce developmental issues related to self-determination in children with developmental disabilities.

20) December 1999. Susan Palmer delivered a presentation at the Division of Early Childhood, Council for Exceptional Children's annual meeting in Washington, DC. She provided information about the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction and related information on self-determination.

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23) April 2000. A keynote presentation was made by Dr. Palmer about developmental aspects of self-determination at a weekend conference of Families Together, the Kansas Parent Training Information Center.

24) Beginning in October 2000, Dr. Palmer participated in the initial offering of the NEC*TAS Web-based On-Line workshop for project support staff. It related to the dissemination that will be completed when the Beach Center web site is revamped in the near future.

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28) February 2001. Dr. Palmer gave a presentation at Oklahoma Council for Exceptional Children in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma on the Early Elementary Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.

29) April 2001. Dr. Palmer and Danna Yeager presented a session on the Early Elementary Self-Determined Learning Model of instruction at the Council on Exceptional Children's annual conference, Kansas City, MO.

30) May 2001. Drs. Palmer and Wehmeyer presented a poster at the AAMR meeting on the Early Elementary Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.

31) In February 2002, Dr. Palmer completed an invited inservice training for teachers in the Edmond, Oklahoma school district on elementary-age self-determination.

32) February 2002. Dr. Palmer presented a workshop at Kansas DEC in Wichita, KS on elementary self-determination.

33) April 2002. Dr. Palmer did a workshop at the International Parent to Parent conference in Philadelphia, PA on the Parent's Guide to Self-Determination.

34) June 2002. Dr. Palmer did a workshop for a group of parents in Leawood, KS for Families Together, the state PTI program.

35) Susan Palmer and Michael Wehmeyer wrote an article describing the model field test results and it has been accepted for publication in the journal, *Remedial and Special Education*. (Palmer, S.B. & Wehmeyer, M.L. (2003) Promoting self-determination in early elementary school: Teaching self-regulated problem solving and goal setting skills. *Remedial and Special Education, 24(2))*.

36) Final copies of *Self-Determined Learning Model for Early Elementary Students: A Parent's Guide* have been published by Drs. Palmer and Wehmeyer and is being disseminated using networks of The Beach Center on Disability, The Arc of the United States, and Parent to Parent.

37) A Teacher's Guide to Implementing the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction Early Elementary Version has been produced by Drs. Palmer and Wehmeyer is being disseminated using networks of The Beach Center on Disability, The Arc of the United States, and Parent to Parent.

Appendix B

The Teacher's Guide to the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

A Teacher's Guide to
Implementing the

Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Early Elementary Version

Susan B. Palmer and Michael L. Wehmeyer

Beach Center on Disability

The University of Kansas

IDEAs that Work

U.S. Office of Special
Education Programs

A Teacher's Guide to Implementing the

Self-Determined Learning

Model of Instruction

Early Elementary Version

Susan B. Palmer and Michael L. Wehmeyer

Beach Center on Disability
Schiefelbusch Institute for Lifespan Studies

The University of Kansas

Illustrated by Sharon Falkner

IDEAs that Work
U.S. Office of Special
Education Programs

This project is supported by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) Model Demonstration Projects for Young Children with Disabilities – CFDA 84.024B. Opinions expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the position of the U.S. Department of Education.

IDEAs that Work

U.S. Office of Special Education Programs

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Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank the early elementary teachers and school staff in Texas and Kansas who were instrumental in supporting the initial and continued field tests of this manual. Due to confidentiality agreements with school districts, these individuals will not be listed. Danna Yeager, Project Coordinator, was invaluable to this work. Danna's knowledge of students, teachers, and curriculum provided insight into how the teaching model can function. She assisted with data collection and interviews of teachers and students to help refine this product.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, upon which the text is based, was adapted by a number of respected colleagues who took the time, energy, and effort to meet with Drs. Wehmeyer and Palmer in January of 1997. Dr. Dennis Mithaug, Columbia University; Dr. Martin Agran, University of Northern Iowa; and Dr. James Martin, University of Oklahoma supported the efforts of Wehmeyer and Palmer to revise the previous Adaptability Model (Mithaug, Martin & Agran ,1987) for use within the principles of self-determination and student direction.

Introduction

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Age Students was first used with teachers to help students learn problem solving and goal setting. Parents can use this model to support school learning at home or to work on problems or goals in the home. A Parents' Guide to the Self-Determined Learning Model is available from the Beach Center on Disability. This model enables teachers and parents to help children to begin the process to become self-determined. Young students can make choices and begin to understand problem solving and goal setting.

Children work with adults to use the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. Children's ideas are valued and can be used with the questions in the model. Children's interests support their motivation. If we listen carefully to what children have to say, adults can structure support for children's learning without taking total control. These interests of a child tend to support motivation to achieve goals.

Try using the sequence of questions presented later in this Teacher's Guide for problem solving with your students. These questions can help you guide support for your students in making choices and decisions, and to set goals for school and home

Chapter 1

Self-Determination in Early Education

Self-determination provides a framework for a lifelong pursuit of individually determined abilities and outcomes. For young children, self-determination relates to the interests, choices, decisions, and problems that are solved, usually with adult support. Recent interest in the developmental aspects of self-determination has lead educators to emphasize the factors that influence later self-determination. As children grow and mature, they can take on more independent outcomes related to choice and decision making, in addition to being able to advocate for themselves, solve their own problems, and set and achieve goals with help. These abilities and outcomes will affect quality of life and the pursuit of success for all people, but especially those with disabilities.

Self-determination provides the support for capacity building and opportunity for our young people to experience more control in their lives and learn to make decisions and solve problems. Although there are many definitions of self-determination, this Teacher's Guide will be based on the work of Wehmeyer (1992, 1996), defining self-determination as an educational outcome. Deci and Ryan (1985) view self-determination as "the capacity to choose and have those choices be the determinants of one's actions". But choice alone is not enough to support life-long self-determination. Self-determination is "acting as a primary causal agent in one's life and making choices and decisions regarding one's quality of life free from undue external influence or interference", according to Wehmeyer. A causal agent is someone who makes things happen, as opposed to being acted upon. To support this view of self-determination, Wehmeyer identified four *Essential Characteristics* of an activity that reflect self-determination:

1) Making choices and decisions, as needed (acting autonomously);
2) Having some personal control over actions (behaviors are self-regulated);
3) Feeling capable and acting that way, (initiating and responding to events in a "psychologically empowered" manner); and
4) Understanding the effects of their actions (acting in a self-realizing manner).

A child may begin to display some of these *essential characteristics* in his or her behavior, but not to the extent that an adolescent or adult would. We should not expect young children to be fully self-determined. However, there are developmental components that support behavior that is autonomous, self-regulated, psychologically empowered, and self-realizing:

- Choice making
- Decision making
- Problem solving
- Goal-setting and attainment

- Self-observation, self-evaluation, and reinforcement (being self-regulated)
- Self-instruction
- Positive beliefs that one is effective and can expect certain outcomes
- Self-awareness and self-knowledge (knowing what you do well and what you need help to do
- Self Advocacy skills (speaking up for oneself).

These developmental components are the focus of our efforts with young students, as well as older ones, to promote later self-determination. Some of these components are present early in life and can be supported continuously. For example, choice making can occur in infancy, but may continue to need support when a child is *seven* or even *seventeen* years old. Others, such as goal setting and self-advocacy develop as children become more capable. A more in-depth discussion of the definition of self-determination and *Essential Characteristics* can be found in Wehmeyer, (1996).

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Elementary Age Students encourages students and teachers to work on the development of a number of *Component Elements* of self-determination such as choice making, problem solving and decision making. These abilities will support later independence in chosen activities.

Self-Determination and Development

Self-determination is a developmental process that families, teachers, and therapists can promote in the earliest elementary grades. Parents can also encourage the development of fundamental capabilities of children prior to school attendance. Children begin the process of becoming self-determined through experiences in many settings and by learning about, and doing, many different things (Doll, Sands, Wehmeyer & Palmer, 1996).

Beginning to think of self-determination when children are younger has many advantages:

- Sufficient time for maturation and competency,
- Significant adults can provide practice and guidance in needed skills,
- Time to practice and refine abilities before becoming independent,
- Prevention of over-dependence and low sense of self-efficacy, and
- Learning opportunities can easily be infused into the developmental structure of early childhood to support developmental skills for self-determination. (Aberry & Zajac, 1996)

Doll, Sands, Wehmeyer, and Palmer (1996) focus on the development of the component skills such as choice making and problem solving. Many parents know that a young child can make choices early in their life and express interests related to activities, people, and food if they are given assistance and opportunities. Children begin to communicate to express their choices, first in pointing to objects and then in naming the objects. Young children begin to differentiate between self and others at about 15 to 18 months, becoming increasingly more self-aware.

Young children include future plans in their play. Boys and girls talk about what they want to be when they grow up. When children begin to set goals, the goals often relate to finding information about something in which they are interested. Cause and effect learning relates to goal setting, and is usually achieved after five years of age. In early elementary grades, children, with support of teachers and parents, can set short-term goals to learn self-evaluation, use self-monitoring, and other skills that promote later self-determination. The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction is based on universal principles of child development. While children with special needs develop in much the same way that other children do, their development may be delayed and may not be in the same order as others (Giola, 1993; Hodapp, Burack, & Zigler, 1990). However, as Sands and Doll (1996) point out, children can use adaptive means to function, if their development is altered due to disability. All children can learn to make choices, decisions, and solve problems in preparation for adulthood.

The home, school, and community provide support for an individual to become self-determined. Parents and others impact the development of self-determination through providing opportunities for a child. Parents can support and expect self-determined activities for children and youth with disabilities. In early intervention services, specialists and therapists can encourage independent function and development of abilities with the support and assistance of parents. At school, the teacher can support and expect higher levels of independence, with the help of parents and therapists. In the community, interacting with others supports growth and development.

Children with disabilities can be supported and encouraged by people who spend time in practice with them and who collaborate with others on the educational or support team, to promote later self-sufficiency and self-determination. Teachers and parents can encourage children to consider alternatives, make choices, increase social interaction, and support the process of learning through play. Young children can enjoy play for fun as well as for learning. Play includes play with toys or things of interest around the house and social play with other people.

Specific contexts, such as home, school, and community can offer opportunities for skill development. The physical environment at home and school can promote the opportunity for the development of independence. According to Cook, Brotherson, Weigerl-Garrey and Mize (1996), the home offers children their earliest opportunities to make choices, experience control, and exhibit competence. Home is not simply a place, but also can provide a territory for ownership, the nurturing to support development, privacy, sociability, and opportunities for stimulation and manipulation. Wachs (1986) listed dimensions of the physical environment that may relate to school or home. The aspects that were positively related to various cognitive parameters in typically developing children were: the availability of stimulus materials, the variety of stimulus materials, the responsiveness of the environment, and the regularity of scheduling of activities. The elements that were negatively related to cognitive parameters were: ambient background noise, overcrowding, and physical restraints upon exploration.

Rules and limits for both home and school behaviors help young people manage their own behavior, learn self-regulation, and become a valued part of our society. Of course, children do need limits placed on territory and behavior. Within workable limits, the physical and psychological environments can support independent functioning, both at home and in school.

The home, school, and community provide opportunities for children to learn, through the physical and social environments:

- Activities to help children learn can occur regularly and be directed by children's interests;
- Different materials can be made available to stimulate child learning;
- Regular feedback can be provided to children about their learning.

Teachers and parents can encourage children to consider alternatives, make choices, increase social interaction, and begin the process of learning through cognitive and social play. It has become more common for students with disabilities of all ages to have more involvement in their Individualized Planning Meetings, as well as to learn to lead these meetings. However, young students do not often attend their meetings, unless a parent, principal, or special educator supports this practice. *Our philosophy is that students should not only be involved in their annual planning meetings, but also work on day- to-day self-directed plans.* This builds capacity for self-determination.

Many community activities for young children could occur with parents and other family members, such as:

- Family trips to the library, where a young child can choose books to "read" or educational videos to watch,
- Story time for young children and their parent to support learning,
- Religious services for families to provide contact with other children for the child with disabilities,
- An activity or play group provides opportunities for a small group of children to play with toys, make choices about food for snacks, and learn to get along with others, and
- Child care, preschool, or possibly Head Start can provide both consistent care and learning opportunities.

If you suggest out of home care for a child with significant delays, consider if this child can maintain self-regulation if he or she is away from a parent over time. Depending on level of comfort, social emotional development, and need for independence many young children still need a consistent caregiver with them to benefit from activities outside the home.

Family Beliefs and Self-Determination

Being self-determined means that a person can make choices and decisions about what is important to them, supported by their family or cultural beliefs. But it is also important for young people with disabilities to be safe and secure in their world, and to have the ability to speak up or advocate for themselves at school or work, as needed. A balance between making every choice and decision for oneself, and allowing others to make these for us is something each person must find. For example, many adults drive a car, but choose not to learn about car repairs. They find someone to do the repairs for them, making a conscious decision to have someone else do this. A person with a disability may not choose to live independently, but this option should be there for them, if they want to do so, with support from family, friends, and service providers. For young children, choices may be smaller in scope, but equally important in practicing the process of goal setting and problem solving.

Cultural sensitivity to family needs must be considered in self-determination. Each family is individually choosing their own beliefs, rather than assuming a specific cultural norm for African American or Hispanic or Chinese cultures, for example. Even though a family closely identifies with a specific culture or religion, they may hold somewhat different beliefs and customs. Our consideration of self-determination and quality of life adds the elements of self-determination and independent functioning to that array of differences. Families need to decide the level of independence for their own members, depending upon their own beliefs, financial resources, and ability to support unique circumstances. And families need to decide what is best for their own members. For example, young children in some family groups may not be encouraged to make their own choices during preschool years since parents in their culture usually make these for them. However, when a child with a disability reaches school age some family flexibility must be possible, as these same children will probably be encouraged to learn to choose among alternatives at school.

Self-determination is sometimes linked with total independence. However, one can be self-determined in some capacity, even though they are unable to make more than a few decisions for themselves due to having a severe disability. For example, a person with multiple disabilities might make the decision about his/her own caregiver – rather than have someone helping them who is chosen by another person. Although young children will not be independent from their families (except in some special circumstances), the process of becoming self-determined does not equate with total independence for anyone of any age. It merely provides the support for capacity building and opportunity for our young people to experience more control in their lives and learn to make decisions and solve problems with some guidance from adults.

Developmentally Appropriate Practice and Self-Determination

Developmentally appropriate practice in instructional settings encourages the skills of self-determination to evolve. The position statement of the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) on developmentally appropriate practice is often used as a guideline in the education of children from birth through eight years of age. (Bradencamp & Copple, 1996). Developmentally appropriate practice is the result of educators making decisions about the education and well being of children based on several kinds of knowledge:

1) Child development and learning,
2) Strengths, interests, and needs of each individual child in the group, and
3) Social and cultural contexts in which children live.

Each kind of knowledge is dynamic, so teachers of young children need to remain active learners and open to change throughout their careers (Bradencamp & Copple, 1996).

Twelve principles of child development and learning are discussed in the NAEYC guidelines. Several of these are closely related to the development of self-determination in school-age children, according to Hanline, (1998):

- Children are active learners, drawing on direct physical and social experience, as well as culturally transmitted knowledge to construct their own understanding.
- Play is an important for children's social, emotional and cognitive development,
- Children demonstrate different modes of knowing and learning and different ways of representing what they know.
- Children develop and learn in the context of a community where they are safe and valued, their physical needs are met, and they feel psychologically secure.

One way to support early self-determination is through scaffolding. As long as teachers include the student in the scaffolding process as *more* than a *receiver of information*, this method can be effective for students of any age (Stone, 1998; Wong, 1998; Reid, 1998). Teachers should use the student's individual abilities and knowledge to aid instruction that is mutually determined, not only flowing from the teacher to student. Emphasizing some student direction in a learning activity will be beneficial to learning. Using Vygotsky's zone of proximal development, adults can structure activities somewhat (but not too far) above the current level of functioning of a child in order to promote learning and development, (Vygotsky, 1978). Maslin-Cole and Spieker (1990) suggest a variety of strategies and issues to support children by scaffolding:

- Keep a child motivated and working toward an end goal,
- Use sensitive contingent reinforcement to help maintain enthusiasm for a task, and
- Effectively reduce child frustration by being sensitive (knowing when a child needs to have a break or is finished for the day).

As teachers provide children with a rich variety of experiences worthy of children's attention, developmentally appropriate principles are in use to promote learning. By providing meaningful choices and time to explore these choices, teachers can support students to gain experience for later self-determination. Teachers can offer opportunities to practice and expand newly acquired skills, as well as use scaffolding within the child's zone of proximal development to extend these skills. These developmentally appropriate practices encourage further learning and future self-determination.

Teaching about ideas, skills, critical thinking, and how to talk about these issues, aids students to learn how to learn. In the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, students decide "what it is they want to do or learn", within teacher guidelines. This process is powerful – due to the impact of self-directed learning. Student-directed learning is considered best practice in early childhood classrooms (age 3-5 years) using materials from High/Scope Press and principles of Reggio Emilia (Abramson, Robinson & Ankenman, 1995). Choice is encouraged in classrooms of young children to promote active involvement in learning. Teachers encourage children to consider alternatives, make choices, increase social interaction, and begin the process of learning through cognitive and social play. Socialization and development of individual skills are the goals of early childhood classes at the preschool level.

Classrooms in elementary school assume a different focus. When the task of the school is more academic in nature, Direct Instruction is widely used and the opportunity for student choice markedly decreases. Although a certain amount of directed activity is needed to impart knowledge, students can also benefit from self-directed learning.

How can students between age 5 and 8 years benefit from self-determined learning? Mithaug (1998) studied six children ages 6 to 8 years in an activity to solve two of the problems of self-determined learning: how to plan what to do, and how to adjust behavior based on that plan. Following a period of direct instruction to select work tasks, specifying the number of tasks that would be completed, recording the number of tasks completed, and indicating whether their plans had been correct, students worked independently. Time on task was increased, along with independent management of goals and their attainment for independent work. Mithaug's study illustrates the efficacy of this type of self-regulated task for young children with disabilities.

Chapter 2

Using the Self-Determined Learning Model

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary Age Students is an adaptation of a version for adolescents (Wehmeyer, Agran, Palmer & Mithaug, 1998). Younger students *can* benefit from the structure and support of the model, as seen in a field test conducted in two states (Palmer & Wehmeyer, In press). We found that younger students need to talk more about what interests them, what a problem is, and what the word 'goal' means. But first, what exactly is a model of teaching?

Models of Teaching

Models of teaching include role playing, cooperative learning, contingency management, and direct instruction. Joyce and Weil (1996), write that increasing student aptitude to learn is one of the fundamental purposes of using models of teaching. Models of teaching are *models of learning*, according to Joyce and Weil. *The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction is designed to provide a means to teach students to become more self-determined and to learn to self-direct their own learning through goal setting and problem solving.* By using student direction combined with teacher support, children can acquire information, ideas, skills, values, ways of thinking, and learn how to express themselves to support emerging skills of self-determination.

An unintended outcome of special education, according to Sands and Doll (1996), is that "many students depend on adults to manage their learning, instead of directing their own success in academics and other tasks in school", (p. 59). This may be due to the individualization of instruction that teachers do to support student learning. But, teachers can encourage students to develop self-determination by using teaching models such as the Self-Determined Learning Model that help students with disabilities, or any student, to assume more self-direction in their learning.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary Age Students is designed for teachers to help young students develop abilities leading to later self-determination. This model provides a way for teachers and students to use problem solving and goal setting with almost any subject within the curriculum. But it is a teaching model - for use by teachers to guide students to learn self-direction and start the process of becoming self-determined. Teachers need to help students use the model, rather than have students use it alone.

The model is designed for teachers to *enable* students to learn to use goal setting and problem solving in their daily activities. By directly involving students in this process, children become part of an active learning environment, engaging in the process of exploring their ideas, strengths, and limitations. Joyce and Weil (1996) describe models of teaching using the following terms: *Syntax* (the orderly system of any model), *Social System* (that drives the model), *Principles of Reaction* (that support the teacher role in interacting with students), and *Support System* (any materials or other strategies that help model use). The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction is outlined using these same terms.

Children (with teacher support) answer *Student Questions* of the model to provide a way to get from "where I am now" to "where I want to be", (goal achievement). These *Student Questions* provide the *Syntax* of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. By implementing *Teacher Objectives* (*Social System of model*) that accompany each Student Question, teachers are guided to help students think about each question and what needs to happen to facilitate learning. This non-directive teaching and facilitating are the *Principles of Reaction* that occur when talking with students about their interests, goals, and how to solve the problems and achieve outcomes. The *Support System* for setting goals and solving problems is instruction by teachers using *Educational Supports* from the model. The *Educational Supports* (choice making instruction, self-instruction, and others), implement strategy development for students to set a goal, develop a plan to meet that goal, and evaluate a plan.

The *Student Questions* of the model are important, but only outline the goal setting process. The real activity begins by talking together. You and a student or small group of students can decide what to do, what needs to happen, agree when and what will take place, and other details about goal setting and problem solving. Use the sequence of questions presented later in this guide for goal setting and problem solving with children. These questions can help you learn to support students in making choices and decisions, and to set goals for home and school. But first, talk with the students about interests, goals, and problems so that you are thinking about similar ideas as you talk.

Learning about Interests, Goals, and Problems

Examples of actual student answers for Interests and the Student Questions will be used to illustrate each step of model use. Students' names have been changed, but the ages and need for support reflect actual model use. As with any model of teaching, you can adapt and maintain some flexibility in use with different students. But keeping a means-end, logical problem solving sequence of questions and steps is important.

Activity One – What are Interests? Interests motivate behavior. The Self-Determined Learning Model is built on the principles of student-directed learning involving child interests, which motivate child behavior. So the suggestions for what children wish to do or learn provide the basis for setting a goal within the model. Student examples will be presented in italics throughout this guide. These students worked on actual goals with teachers in field tests conducted by research project staff.

Anna is age 5 and in an early childhood class to support her need for services for developmental delay. *She said that she was interested in playing in her doll house, going to Ms. B's class to work, doing things in Centers (the Teacher Center is her favorite), spelling names, working in small group time to make things, and using her symbol that is beside her name to learn to draw. First, she and her teacher talked about interests and what they meant. Then they sat together and talked about Anna's specific interests. Anna's interest page is on page 12.*

You can work with a student to use the model by valuing the child's interests as well as setting necessary limits to help with goals. We asked young students this question: "If someone says "what are you interested in doing?' do you know what he or she means?" Students often were unable to give an answer, even when the question was restated in different words. Many young children and students with more severe disabilities need to think about *what interests are* and *about their own interests first.* Listen carefully to what children have to say and structure your supports for this child's learning without taking total control of the situation.

Steve, a second grader, has been identified with learning disabilities and is getting extra help in reading. *He and his teacher spent some time talking about what Steve really liked to do. They mentioned so many things that there was not enough room on the sheet, so they divided the spots to include more information. Steve's teacher was amazed at all the things that Steve liked to do. She knew about some of them, but mainly was aware of what Steve did not like – being in school. Look on page 13 for Steve's Interests.*

A blank "Exploring My Interests" page of the model is in Appendix C. You can copy this to use with your students. Encourage children to fill in words or draw pictures related to their interests at home or school on the top part of the page. You can help children write this or have them do it, depending on how they *can* and *want* to communicate. But first talk about interests together or in a small group of students.

Dan, a third grader with learning disabilities, needed to spend more time on task when he was in learning situations. *His interests included riding bikes, playing soccer, going to his friend's house, spelling, and doing better in math. Dan and his teacher thought really hard about what interests were and Dan finally was able to list the ones above. But, Dan's teacher knew that Dan still needed a lot of support to maintain his interest and motivation for school activities. See page 14 to look at Dan's page.*

Anna

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

play with my dollhouse

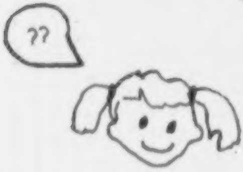
I like to go to Ms. B's class to work.

Do things in centers. Teacher center is the best.

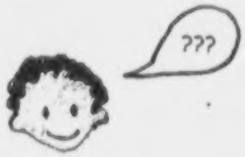
Spell names

Small group time to make things

Use my symbol beside my name.



What do I want to learn?



To write my name and my friend's names. *

Learn to read.

Learn to draw symbols. *

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

* selected by student.

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Steve

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

Recess, PE

write on chalkboard.

Playing on computer.

Math

I love numbers-adding and subtracting.

My resource room-playing on computer,

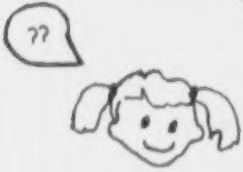
drawing.

Ride the 4-wheeler

Eat and cook (I'm learning to cook).

Play Nintendo 64

Ride in the truck with my dad.



What do I want to learn?

* Read better.

Learn to write sentences faster.

Learn multiplication.

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

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Dan

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

Ride my bike

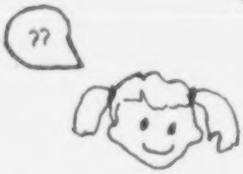
Do computer games at school.

Go to Joe's house.

Do math better.

Spell words right.

Play soccer.



What do I want to learn?

Spelling

Math *

Computers

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

Exploring Interests as a Group Activity. In groups of children, you can talk about having the same or different interests. Make a chart of the various activities on the board as students name activities. For example, students may say that after school they plan to ride bikes, play, shop with their parent, go to after-school care, or watch television. More than one child might choose the same activity and each child's name can be listed under their preferred or expected activity. Or you can make a mark beside each child's interests and add how many in the class like to do each one. This will illustrate that children may have similar or different interests, and how they spend time. Use recess, to talk about interests: "What do you like to do during recess?" Children can be asked to draw a picture, write or tell a story about what they like to do best, describing their interest in a certain activity. Below is an example of a chart to display interests.

What's your favorite thing to do after school? (just pick one)

Ride Bikes	Play outside	Go shopping	Go to After School Care	Watch TV	See my friends
8	4	3	2	4	4

Activity Two – What is a Goal? At the lower part of the Exploring My Interests page, teachers and students will be thinking about a goal as something you want to learn or do. The word goal in the model relates to something you want to learn or do. Another meaning for goal that occurs to young children is a score in soccer or football, but this is not what we're thinking of now. You can talk about examples of goals that students might set, such as learning math addition facts or reading a book. Use examples that apply to what you usually teach or a specific subject area.

The three boxes at the bottom of Exploring My Interests direct children to choose several things they want to work on (topics for goals). Take time to listen to children's ideas to help them think about goals. Student's interests will motive them to work on their goal. You can make suggestions and set limits on the goal topics to make them more realistic, safe, and applicable to what subject you are teaching. *Students can select three possible goal topics, putting one in each box at the bottom of the Interest page.*

Anna thought that she might like to write her name and her friends' names, as well as learn to read, and learn to draw the symbols her teachers use beside everyone's names. Dan decided that he wanted to learn about math, spelling, and computers for some possible goals. Steve focused his attention on better reading, learning to write sentences faster, and learning multiplication.

When you talk with students about goals teachers should:

- Discuss the meaning of the word, goal as something you set out to do;
- Talk about various goals that students might want to work on in elementary school such as reading Dr. Seuss books, playing with friends at recess, or working for longer times on class work;

- Limit student-set goals to the subject matter you are responsible for teaching, your ability to monitor the goal within the school setting, and the ability and interest of the student; and
- Ask students to think about a possible goal, and spend a few minutes with each student to talk about the goal.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction works most effectively on immediate goals, with time limitations for accomplishing them – within the 6- or 8-week grading period or fall/spring semester. The goals that students set in Phase 1of the model will be followed by a Plan in *Phase 2*. *Phase 3* is an evaluation of that plan or goal. By working through the *Student Questions*, use of *Teacher Objectives*, and implementing *Educational Supports*, students and teachers can begin to work together on goals and problems in a logical, effective way that investigates student interests, abilities, strengths and weaknesses, and the environment in which goals are set. See Chapter 4 of this guide for more information on goals.

Activity 3 – What are Barriers or Problems? *Barriers* are in the way of goal attainment. *Problems* are related to goals and the goal-setting process. You can talk about problems and barriers by using some examples from everyday life. Encourage your students to think about problems, give examples of a problem, and decide what the word 'problem' or 'barrier' means for them and others. Before beginning the model, teachers can talk informally with their students several times about problems, interests, and goals.

Use of examples and illustrations of problems will be helpful. Read an appropriate story or picture book about problem solving to introduce or reinforce the idea. Some suggestions for early elementary children's books about problem solving are contained in Appendix A. For example, in the book, *Ice Cream for Rosie*, by Ronda and David Armitage, Rosie solves a problem about having enough ice cream. You can read this book, stop at various spots and talk about how Rosie might solve this problem. There are other books for early elementary students listed in Appendix A.

Teachers encourage students to think about their idea of a problem, give illustrations of a problem, and determine exactly what the word problem means for them and others. Talk about academic or social problems that you can impact at school. Set up guidelines that discourage talking about concerns about home, since you rarely can monitor these sufficiently to note change. You can share the model with a family to work on personal goals.

Some suggestions for these discussions include:

- Discuss the meaning of the word "problem" within your school context;
- Explain that a problem is something that keeps people from getting what they want or need;
- Use role playing (described in Chapter 9), to talk about the many ways there are to solve problems. (For example,"If you need to get ready for reading group on time,

what can you do?" or "Sammy lost his sweatshirt at recess. How can he find it again?");

- Talk about reasons why problems are not solved. (For example, people may not want to think about them, it takes some time, they are difficult, problems may appear to be too large to solve, etc.);
- Discuss what barriers or difficulties are: something in the way of a solution, such as a student who wants to be in the choir, but can not read the hard words in the music; and
- Remind students that problems are not necessarily bad things, but simply are things that need work. (For example, a science project is due next month, or a student needs to learn how to work in small groups to do geo-boards in math.)

Discussions about problems should be held more than once, to include continued student input and interaction. Ongoing discussion of problems supports students to understand this concept. If only a few of your students will be using the model, the discussion can be adapted to meet the specific needs of these students.

Thinking about Other Details of Instruction

Time. The first time that students work on their goals using the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, it may take more time than if the student has already used the model several times. Teachers should interact with students over time and teach the skills that will be useful for goal attainment. The *Teacher Objectives* provide a means of interaction and the *Educational Supports* outline some skills for direct instruction for a variety of goals, but each student's needs might be different. Over time, teacher report the time spent working through the model becomes more focused and shorter in length, with the student assuming more responsibility for learning. By including the student as a learning partner, teachers can use the student's interests, abilities, and skills as building blocks for goal attainment. Continue to use your regular classroom rules, behavior standards and regulations to support self-determination as you encourage student involvement.

Standards and Benchmarks. Problem solving and goal setting are essential parts of the general curriculum for all students in most every state. These guidelines are usually listed under social studies or language arts objectives, but are clearly stated as fundamental needs at each grade level for all students. Use of The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction will provide a way to teach and practice these essential elements for self-determination and education, as well as comply with standards and benchmarks that are part of the general curriculum.

IEP's. Many of the students involved in goal setting using the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction will have an Individualized Education Plan (IEP). How will the model fit with such a plan? IEP objectives are written to last for one year – a more long-term goal. The student can be encouraged to select a benchmark from the general standard or subject matter of one of his/her IEP objectives. The Self-Determined Learning Model supports student direction of what the student wants to learn (within teacher limits), and should be selected by students when discussing goals.

IEP Meetings. *Students can work on day-to-day plans AND be involved in their annual planning meetings using the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.* It has become more common for students to be involved in Individualized Planning Meetings, and to even lead these meetings. A parent, principal, or special educator can facilitate student attendance at meetings. Work within your system to facilitate more student participation, if possible.

Chapter 3

How to Use the Three Phases of the Model

Now that your students understand what the words "interests", "goals" and "barriers or problems" mean (see Chapter 2), you can move on to working on the actual Self-Determined Learning Model. The model has three phases: *Set a Goal*, *Take Action*, and *Adjust Goal or Plan*. *Student Questions*, *Teacher Objectives*, and *Educational Supports* are associated with each phase. The three phases of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction are listed in Tables 1.1-1.3 in this chapter.

Student Questions

Each of three parts or phases has four *Student Questions*. Again, the questions are the *Syntax* or orderly system of the model. The wording of these questions can be changed to make sure that children understand them. But teachers should keep the meaning the same even if they change some of the words. The questions represent a *problem solving sequence*, beginning with *Question 1*, "What do I want to learn?", *Question 2*, "What do I know about it now?", *Question 3*, "What must change for me to learn what I don't know", and moving finally to *Question 4*, "What can I do to make this happen?". These questions begin with a problem and move in a sequence to help children decide how they will solve the problem by setting a goal. This same sequence of problem solving is contained in *each* of the three phases of the model: *Set a Goal*, *Take Action*, and *Adjust Goal or Plan*.

Student Questions are written in *child voice*, (i.e. "What do *I* like to do at school and at home?" and "What do *I* want to learn?"), to remind you that your student should be answering these questions (with your assistance). This will help students have some voice in what they choose to learn or do. Then after a student is familiar with the steps in the problem solving process, he or she can use these questions more independently (but still with adult guidance) while setting goals and solving problems in many different settings. See Appendix C for a set of model questions that you can copy to use with your students.

Teacher Objectives

Each phase of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction includes *Teacher Objectives* that you should use to guide students through the *Student Questions*.

Remember, *Teacher Objectives* are the *Social System* of the model that drives its progress. Of course, teachers can generate additional objectives as they become familiar with model use. However, it is important for the teacher to continue to look at the *Teacher Objectives* associated with each *Student Question*, so that effective teaching occurs during this process. For example, in Phase2, Take Action, Question 8 - "When will I take action?" the teacher should enable the student to determine a schedule for the action plan, work to enable students to implement the stated action plan, and/or enable the student to self-monitor progress. Each of these *Teacher Objectives* is critically important to building student capacity for self-regulated problem solving and goal setting.

Teacher Objectives drive the learning process for students and should always be considered, even after a student becomes more familiar with the model. The questions and paired objectives are the focal point for student-teacher interaction that is important to this teaching and learning process. For example, if a student moves through the questions of *Phase 1* independently, answering model questions without pause or discussion with the teacher, a great deal of the working process of the model is neglected – the interaction that provides a "window" to the thought of the student and the support of the teacher is missing. These *Teacher Objectives* scaffold student learning to a higher level than what might be done without help. Discussion of the *Student Questions* supports children to be active participants in learning. And teachers provide guidance and direction during the sequence of questions.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction combines at least one, if not more *Teacher Objectives* with *Student Questions*. (For example, in Question 1, Phase 1 "What do I want to learn?" the stated objective for teachers is to "Enable students to identify specific strengths and instructional needs". Teachers should help students to:

1) Answer the *Student Questions* supporting the process with the *Teacher Objectives*,
2) Use questions adapted to fit the student's learning ability and understanding,
3) Maintain the problem solving sequence in each phase of the model by keeping the order of the *Student Questions* intact, and
4) Use picture cues or prompts for students who are non-readers or poor readers to enable students to experience both the verbalization of the question and a visual cue.

Educational Supports

Educational Supports are suggested for each Phase of the model. These supports can be used in whole-group instruction or taught individually to meet the needs of any student. Although teachers have a primary role in the support of the learner and should set boundaries and limits related to the process, the student is the primary agent for choices, decisions, and actions, within the teacher's guidelines. Student involvement does not cancel out teacher involvement and guidance in teaching and learning. Instead, it supports a bi-directional learning process with both student and teacher being actively involved. *Educational Supports* are the *Support System* of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.

Instructional and self-management strategies can be used for instruction of any student within each phase of the model. Problem solving instruction, self-scheduling, choice making instruction, assertiveness training, and self-monitoring are *Educational Supports* representing another "skill set" that students can be taught in order to include more self-directed learning and problem solving/goal-setting in their educational plan. Depending on the situation, the student can learn to use many of these *Educational Supports* following some direct teaching of the skills by teachers. However, it is also possible that many of these supports will continue to be teacher-directed within the model sequence.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction is a model of teaching to promote student self-determination and student-involvement in learning. It is important that teachers *monitor student activities carefully*, that teachers directly teach *Educational Supports* of the model, and that *students demonstrate competency in actions*, not just in the words that they use to answer *Student Questions*.

Self-determination does not necessarily mean independent action or activity. Teachers should continue to monitor student activities, use student interest and involvement to motivate skill acquisition, and assist students in becoming causal agents in their lives at least within the school setting. In the home, parent support of choice and decision making will extend and generalize these skills for children. Use of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction with young children supports the development of self-determination in combination with typical activities throughout the school curriculum, depending on the focus/subject orientation of the teacher. The model enables learners to begin the process of becoming self-regulated problem solvers.

Helping Your Students Through the Model Phases

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction can be introduced to students in a group setting or individually, depending on the ability level of students and size of the classroom. First, teachers need to decide whether they will initially work with one individual, a small group, or a larger group. Younger children will need more preparation than older children, so the age of the group should be considered, as well as their general developmental level. If the children who will be involved in the discussion understand abstract concepts like problem, interests, and goals, then the teacher can move quickly through the initial model preparation described in Chapter 2. However, one should not assume that students understand these concepts without clearly discussing them with children first.

When you talk about the questions within the model, listen carefully to your students, rather than supplying words for them. Ask open-ended questions that need more than a one- or two-word answers and use effective listening. *Effective listening* means restating answers that the student gives to clarify meaning, and focusing on each child in the conversation, rather than on what you will be saying next. You will need to wait after asking a question for a student to give an answer. Wait time could be a minimum of 10 to 15 seconds of silence, to give the students time to gather their thoughts and express these in their own words. If a student is unable to answer, reword the question, and wait again.

Only after giving students adequate time and opportunity to supply answers, should you suggest what the student might consider. You can provide this support for students to work on a goal even if at first some children can't independently answer the questions in the model. Children can learn about goal setting while they are doing it, with you as their support to explain things. As you use all the *Student Questions* in the three phases of the model, *write down* the reworded version for future use with this student. This will provide you with a list of *Student Questions* to use each time.

Phase 1-Set a Goal. Teachers should explain the purpose of using the Self-Determined Learning Model to their students: 1) to become better problem solvers, 2) to learn to work on setting goals and making decisions at school, and 3) to learn new things. Talk about interests, goals, and problems or barriers in general. Following the general discussion of goals and problems, start *Phase 1* by saying the first *Student Question*, "What do I want to learn?" Refer to the Exploring My Interests page and the three learning goals that the student listed. Help the student select one goal to answer the first *Student Question*. Discuss what Question 1 means with the student, and if necessary, use alternate phrasing such as "What do I want to be able to do?" or "What do I want to know more about?" The student's answer will let you know whether to reword the question and try again.

As students and teachers move through the *Student Questions*, keep in mind the *Teacher Objectives*. For example, for Student Question 1, the Teacher Objectives are:

- Enable students to identify specific strengths and instructional needs;
- Enable students to communicate preferences, interests, beliefs, and values; and
- Teach students to prioritize needs.

The needs of individuals students related to their goal will drive the objective(s) that you use each time.

Student examples of actual answers will illustrate how various student-teacher teams responded to model questions. *Phase1*, Set a Goal, is what teachers and students talk about after thinking about Interests and Goals. Remember, Anna is 5 years old and her teachers use some alternative communication symbols to build literacy and understanding with her young students. Continuing with our students, *Anna wanted to learn about drawing symbols and writing names (Student Question 1- What do I want to learn?). For Question 2, "What do I know about it now?" she replied that she could draw Josie's happy face symbol, her own flower, and Tracy's ice cream cone symbol (that are beside everyone's name on their boxes and around the room). Anna's answer to Question 3, What must change for me to learn what I don't know? is, "I need to learn to draw better." Finally, on Question 4, Anna said that she must keep drawing and practice* *to make this happen. Anna's teacher used a curriculum that included a lot of choices for activities, so Anna was already familiar with student-directed learning.*

A second grader may be able to answer the Student Questions more independently than a younger student. In this case, Steve's teacher supplied some of the more technical reading words, but Steve supplied the basic ideas. *Steve decided to focus his goal on reading better (Question 1 – What do I want to learn?). When his teacher asked him, "What do I know about it now?" – Question 2, he said, "I know the letter sounds, how to sound out words, and know a lot of sight words", with support from his teacher. For Question 3, "What must change for me to learn what I don't know?", Steve thought that he needed to learn more sight words and more sounds. He also thought he needed to practice more and read more books. What can I do to make this Happen? – Question 4, was to read a lot more books (one book each week and learn two new words, according to Steve.*

Dan had decided to work on adding and subtracting with carrying (regrouping)- Question 1- What do I want to learn?. He said that he knew how to add and subtract without regrouping- Question 2, What do I know about it now? For Question 3, What must change for me to learn what I don't know? Dan needed some more help. His teacher helped him to decide that during math, he often was not paying attention and sometimes he got in a hurry. Dan agreed that this might be the case. He decided that if he listened to the teacher and did his classwork and homework, that he might learn the math goal. This was Question 4 – What can I do to make this happen? For Dan, a third grader, the questions in the model helped to focus his need to learning regrouping through more efficient work and paying attention in class. He and his teacher came to an understanding that Dan really did want to learn, but was neglecting his individual study time, as well as the direct attention he needed to bring to learning.

As you investigate a student's beliefs, preferences, and interests, be sure to:

- Narrow the focus of the discussion to the subject matter for which you are responsible or that you wish to cover,
- Think about the purpose of the model - to set goals that are measurable and attainable, and
- Remember the guidelines and limits that are usually in force in your classroom.

Goals may take any form, depending on the interests and developmental level of students and your direction as a teacher. Primarily, goals should be self-identified and learning should be self-directed, to the greatest degree possible. Goals can be related to academics or social skills with behavioral outcomes being imbedded in these categories. For young children, it is difficult to focus on discrete behaviors for the goal. Rather, the behaviors that are keeping them from learning can be addressed as learning barriers or difficulties. The goal-setting process may start with an immediately appropriate, manageable goal for the individual. Dan might say, "I don't want to have the other kids

Table 1.1: Phase 1 of Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 1: Set a Goal *Problem for Student to Solve: What is my goal?*	
Student Question 1: What do I want to learn? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable students to identify specific strengths and instructional needs. • Enable students to communicate preferences, interests, beliefs and values. • Teach students to prioritize needs.	**Educational Supports**
Student Question 2: What do I know about it now? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable students to identify their current status in relation to the instructional need. • Assist students to gather information about opportunities and barriers or problems in their environments.	Student self-assessment of interests, abilities, and instructional needs Awareness Training
Student Question 3: What must change for me to learn what I don't know? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable students to decide if action will be focused toward capacity building, modifying the environment or both. • Support students to choose a need to address from prioritized list.	Choice making Instruction Problem Solving Instruction Decision making Instruction Goal-Setting Instruction
Student Question 4: What can I do to make this happen? **Teacher Objectives** • Teach students to state a goal and identify criteria for achieving goal.	

Table 1.2: Phase 2 of Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 2: Take Action ***Problem for Student to Solve: What is my plan?***	
Student Question 5: What can I do to learn what I don't know? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to self-evaluate current status and self-identified goal status. ***Student Question 6: What could keep me from taking action?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to determine plan of action to bridge gap between self-evaluated current status and self-identified goal status. ***Student Question 7: What can I do to remove these barriers or problems?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Collaborate with student to identify most appropriate instructional strategies. • Teach student needed student-directed learning strategies. • Support student to implement student-directed learning strategies. • Provide mutually agreed upon teacher-directed instruction. ***Student Question 8: When will I take action?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to determine schedule for action plan. • Enable student to implement action plan. • Enable student to self-monitor progress.	**Educational Supports** Self-Scheduling Self-Instruction Antecedent Cue Regulation Choice making Instruction Goal-Attainment Strategies Problem Solving Instruction Decision making Instruction Self-Advocacy Instruction Assertiveness Training Communication Skills Training Self-Monitoring

Table 1.3: Phase 3 of Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 3: Adjust Goal or Plan
Problem for Student to Solve: What have I learned?

Student Question 9: What actions have I taken?	
Teacher Objectives • Enable student to self-evaluate progress toward goal achievement.	**Educational Supports** Self-Evaluation Strategies Goal Setting Choice making Instruction Problem solving Instruction Decision making Instruction Goal-Setting Instruction Self-Reinforcement Strategies Self-Monitoring Strategies Self-Recording Strategies
Student Question 10: What barriers or problems have been removed?	
Teacher Objectives • Collaborate with student to compare progress with desired outcomes.	
Student Question 11: What has changed about what I don't know?	
Teacher Objectives • Support student to re-evaluate goal if progress is insufficient. • Assist student to decide if goal remains the same or changes. • Collaborate with student to identify if action plan is adequate or inadequate given revised or retained goal. • Assist student to change action plan if necessary.	
Student Question 12: Do I know what I want to know?	
Teacher Objectives • Enable student to decide if progress is adequate, inadequate or if goal has been achieved.	

See Appendix C for **Student Questions** formatted with visual cues for the elementary age student.

make fun of me when I don't finish my work or forget to turn it in on time". This goal statement would necessitate outcomes including self-management of time and attention. Or a student might identify a larger issue that must be adapted due to scope, time limitations, or abilities of the student in order to be manageable for this process. For example, another student might say, "I want to have lots of friends at school". If, in fact, this student has no friends at the time, then social skills will be the topic of need and the goal should be shaped to reflect what the student will do within his or her class to make friends. By focusing on their regular curriculum and skills to assist students to achieve goals, asking each student about related interests and goals provides a way to use student-direction and involvement for goal attainment. See the Goal Setting and Goal-Attainment section in Chapter 4 of this manual for additional suggestions on this topic.

We suggest a limited focus for initial goals, so the student and teacher can work through the three phases of the model in a shorter period of time, to encourage active student participation in learning the goal-setting process. *If the student truly believes that their goal should be a large one, then it might be necessary to help the student work through the entire three phases of the model so that the goal is shaped to a more manageable size or scope through answering the Student Questions.* That is, the questions will help streamline a very large goal into one of more manageable size.

These questions can be modified to meet student needs, as previously discussed. The *Teacher Objectives* for Question 1 and the initial steps of beginning the model have already been discussed. Moving on to Question 2, "What do I know about it now?". The Teacher Objective is to assist students to gather information about opportunities and barriers or problems in their environment. The student and teacher need to discuss any ideas that the student generates related to the topic that is mentioned. Teachers can provide suggestions for the student to think about, related to what they already know and on which they might need to find more information, if the student has difficulty generating these.

Then using Question 3, "What must change for me to learn what I don't know?" *Teacher Objectives* include: 1) enable students to decide if action will be focused toward capacity building, modifying the environment, or both, and 2) support students to choose a need to address from a prioritized list. Thus, as the student identifies what it is they want to learn (Question 1), moves on to "What do I know about it now?" (Question 2) some sense of what the student actually needs to accomplish emerges and the barriers or problems are discussed in Question 3. This third question will probably require the introduction of the *Educational Supports* of problem solving and decision making, plus the student self-assessment of abilities and instructional needs. If the student has been able to generate strengths and needs related to the topic, then decision making must be accomplished. If no information has been considered, problem solving should be taught, so that students learn to generate alternatives. And, of course, choice making is used to choose the most likely course of action.

The initial phase of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction should enable a student and his or her teacher to explore desired outcomes, identify the skills and determine what the student needs to do to achieve that outcome. Then, an action plan will be developed during *Phase 2*.

Phase 2 – What is my Plan? *Phase 2* investigates the student problem, "What is my plan?" Again, there are four Student Questions that guide the process. Question 5 in the model is "What can I do to learn what I don't know?" with the Teacher Objective to enable students to self-evaluate current status and self-identify goal status. ***Anna** (the youngest student in our group of 3), answered that she wanted to draw her symbol and those of her friends.* ***Steve** (our reader) answered that he would read one new book per week that his teacher thought was at the right level, as well as write two new words he learned. The teacher thought that having Steve make a bookworm with the body being the name of the book he read and the two legs having the new words would help him have a visual record of his work.* ***Dan** (math) decided to focus on following directions from teachers and doing his work.* Question 6, "What could keep me from taking action?" asks a student to identify what it is they can do. This could be either some within-person change or it could be a wider environmental issue that needs changed (or both*).* *For this question, two of the students mentioned within person changes (Steve and Dan) and Anna talked about things that other people did to interrupt her.*

Student Question 7 in *Phase 2*, "What can I do to remove these barriers or problems?" poses a problem for the student to solve, and teachers should collaborate with the student to identify the most appropriate instructional strategies, teach the student the strategies, support the student as he or she implements the strategies, and provide mutually agreed upon teacher-directed instruction, if needed. The final question in *Phase 2* is, "When will I take action?"(Question 8). *Teacher Objectives* for this question include enabling the student to determine the schedule for the Action Plan, helping them implement the plan, and assisting with student self-monitoring of the plan. Teachers, meanwhile, need to enable the student to determine a plan of action to bridge the gap between the self-evaluated current status and the self-identified goal status. The *Educational Supports* for *Phase 2* include: self-scheduling, self-instruction, antecedent cue regulation, choice making instruction, goal-attainment strategies, problem solving and decision making instruction, self-advocacy and self-awareness instruction, communication skills training, and self-monitoring. Using the supports that are needed by each student, a teacher can directly teach strategies within the context of the selected goal. These supports can be used with whole-group lessons, or be specifically tailored to match individual student needs.

At this point, the students will indicate when they will use *Phase 2*'s plan of action. ***Anna** loved to practice her symbols and writing. Her teacher found a notebook for her to do this, and Anna worked on her writing consistently when she had free time. With **Steve**, reading was something that he did at home (with cooperation from his mother, and that he talked about with his teacher during resource time. He was able to consistently complete one book per week and make his bookworm grow. His parent* *structured his time at home to include study time and made riding his bike a contingent activity, depending on what he accomplished. Having cooperation from a parent was really supportive, according to Steve's teacher.* ***Dan*** *needed more help to work on his goal, so his teacher and Dan worked on self-monitoring and charting his math work, as well as his time on task. They used a simple checklist that had Dan mark when he did his homework and classwork, and included a category for paying attention in class. Each student's teacher decided when to start evaluating the goal, depending on goal progress, activities in school, testing dates, and other details that are part of their school calendar.*

When some activity has taken place toward goal attainment, the student and teacher should work on *Phase 3*, to determine "What have I learned?" This will show if the Action Plan is supporting student progress. Note: it is fine to go back to either phase of the model, if the student is uncertain about what to do. If he or she does not have a clear idea of their goal, then a review of *Phases 1* and *2* should be done. If the student has not taken any action toward goal attainment, perhaps the teacher and student need to talk about the action plan again. Work through *Phase 3* (evaluation) and decide.

Phase 3 – What Have I Learned? In *Phase 3*, you enable your students to self-evaluate progress toward goal achievement, as *Question 9* is answered. The teacher and student can answer *Question 10* related to the barriers or problems that have been removed. As the student begins to answer *Question 11*, "What has changed about what I don't know?", the *Teacher Objectives* include: supporting students to re-evaluate goals with insufficient progress, assisting the student or students to decide if the goal remains the same or changes, collaborating with the student to identify if the action plan is adequate or inadequate, and assisting student to change their action plan if necessary. *Question 12*, "Do I know what I want to know?" can be answered by the student with your support to determine if progress is adequate. *Phase 3* may require instruction in the Educational Supports of self-management (self-evaluation, self-monitoring, self-reinforcement), choice and decision making, problem solving, and goal setting.

Anna*'s Phase 3 answers showed that she had changed her environment a bit, ("I found a quiet place to work" (Question 10), that she learned to draw everyone's symbols and some names, (Question 12), and she felt happy and knew that she learned to write. For* **Steve**, *Phase 3 was a realization that he actually knows more words, is paying attention and reading better, as well as learning to read harder books.* ***Dan*** *said that he had achieved his goal in math and that he had removed the barriers of playing, talking, and not looking at the math problems (Question 10). His answer to whether he knows what he wants to know (Question 12) is a resounding "YES!". For Dan, he was able to experience some success and learn some more about study habits.* The complete sets of *Student Questions* for Anna, Steve and Dan are in Appendix C.

Phase 3 represents student self-evaluation of a goal, a critical part of the learning process. Evaluation is often left to chance, or is only determined from adult feedback. *Phase 3* introduces students to the process of self-evaluation and self-awareness. These are elements of Self-Determination that are often overlooked in teaching, since teacher evaluation is used a great deal. Here we are asking students to begin learning how to self-evaluate. Learning to engage in self-evaluation and becoming more self-aware will assist students to become more independent learners.

The intent of initially investigating interests (Chapter 2) is to provide motivation for student-directed activity. As teachers and students work through the model, the process of determining action and evaluating that action will give some added insight into the goal selection process. For example, if a student (with teacher assistance) sets a goal that does not hold his or her interest over several weeks, then the goal-setting process can be revisited to set another goal (if mutual agreement for this action is reached).

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction is recursive in that at any point in time, the student can return to previous questions in the model. For example, a student can revisit the initial Student Question, "What do I want to learn?" and refocus their attentions on a similar, but adjusted goal, as long as both teacher and student agree on this strategy. Or a student might need to return to a previous model phase to clarify their goal and/or plan. A student should be guided toward a goal that is educationally relevant and one that they will be interested in doing. This will support use of the full model aspects of developing a plan and evaluating that goal or plan. Working through all three phases of the model is the best source of feedback about self-regulated problem solving.

Chapter 4 – Educational Support:

Goal Setting and Goal Attainment

Goal setting and goal attainment strategies are used throughout the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction to explain a goal in such a way that both teacher and student know when the outcome has been achieved. Individuals are motivated to change by experiencing a discrepancy between "where I am now" and "where I want to be". This discrepancy between what you know and what you *want to know* may be apparent to teachers, but may not be so easily identified by students. This is part of the process of goal identification. As students gain experience in identifying goals and problems, they will become more independent, achieve self-efficacy, and be more self-directed learners. Then, as goals are achieved, the sense of completion that results will serve as motivation to start working on other clearly identified goals and problems.

Goals should be chosen by supporting a student to investigate their interests and preferences, helping them discover some discrepancy between "where I am now" and "where I want to be", and assisting them in selecting a goal which is quantifiable, obtainable, and specific to the situation in which the goal is set. A student may have many interests in activities that occur after-school, but if the teacher has no role here, goals should relate to school-based themes. Since the teacher and student are working collaboratively on the discussion of goals, then the subject matter should be relevant to both individuals. Teacher and students can mutually establish certain limits or criteria for goals, such as the (a) subject matter, (b) amount of time in which the goal should be obtained, (c) time spent on goal achievement during class, or (d) other people who will be involved in the student's goal attainment. Promote student voice and self-direction in this process, to the highest degree possible.

"Educational efforts to promote goal setting and attainment skills should focus on teaching students to identify and enunciate specific goals, develop objectives and tasks to achieve these goals, and identify actions necessary to achieve a desired outcome", (Wehmeyer, Agran, Palmer, & Mithaug, 1998, p. 71). The following points are important for setting goals. Goals should be: 1) specific and measurable, 2) attainable, 3) reflective of something that the students want to improve, 4) specific, and have practical starting and finishing dates, 5) written (rather than just spoken), 6) stated in terms of anticipated outcomes, and 6) able to be tracked visually for progress (Martino, 1993). The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction provides *Student Questions* to clearly delineate the goals and provide written documentation of many of the points mentioned by Martino. However, the teacher and student must decide the beginning and conclusion of each goal, determine the plan for the goal, and decide whether the goal is achieved.

Goal setting and goal attainment are used primarily in *Phase 1*, Set a Goal, and *Phase 3*, Adjust Goal or Plan of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. The *Student Questions* in *Phase 1* address the student's interests, preferences, limits, values, beliefs, and needs. Mutual discussion of the questions helps students to identify their strengths and needs, and to learn to prioritize these. Use of the *Exploring Your Interest* page of the model (Chapter 2) also helps with this. Barriers or problems related to goals are identified, along with physical and social environments, and opportunities to succeed. By the end of *Phase 1*, a student will have clearly identified a goal or problem to solve by choosing among alternatives, determining what barriers or problems are in the way, and be ready to proceed to the next stage, *Phase 2*, What is my plan?

Then in *Phase 3*, goal setting and attainment strategies are used to assess and evaluate changes in students' situations and determine if their plan to achieve the goal is working or not. Through teacher collaboration with students on the *Student Questions* of *Phase 3*, the student and teacher can determine the effectiveness of the plan and whether or not the goal is attained.

Doll and Sands (1998) recommend six application principles for effective teaching of goal setting at all grade levels:

1) Assist students to set and define their goals in specific terms, so that it is clear when the goals have been met.
2) Help students set realistic goals that are achieved within a certain time period (i.e., a class period, a day, week, month, or semester). Shorter time intervals provide for more frequent feedback on progress and suggestions for adjustment.
3) Goals should be challenging, within the "zone of proximal development" described in the introduction of this document, or within reach - but not easily obtained. The important idea here is to set goals which demand some work, but are not set so high that the students are overwhelmed.
4) Goals should be relevant to the environment of the student. There should be meaningful connections between their learning and life domains.
5) Help students set goals that define or describe the processes they will use to achieve their goal. Process goals help students focus on the processes of learning, not just the task being completed.
6) If students are unable to set goals, then teachers can set relevant, interesting, and valuable goals with the student's approval. Teachers and students should collaborate on goals as much as possible, at the initial stages of this process.

Academic or social goals may contain behavioral components, but a purely behavioral goal may focus mainly on negative aspects versus positive ones. Young students may have a more positive initial experience working with the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction using Academic or Social goals with behavior needs embedded within them, as identified as a learning barrier or problem. For example, Mr. James thought Jose might learn better if Jose did not get out of his chair constantly. Rather than stating a negative outcome, this teacher guided Jose to focus on adequate completion of reading exercise in the workbook and mentioned that a barrier to success is the constant movement around the room that Jose did. Jose charted the number of exercises he finished each day AND the number of times he left his seat during reading. After some discussion, during the second week Jose's number of reading exercise completions was up and the interfering behavior had decreased. Both the academic need and the behavior were addressed using the model, rather than an exclusive focus on behavior. Mr. James discussed the goal with Jose and they identified a need for Jose to have reassurance when he first stated his work, in order to feel confident enough to continue. Once Jose's needs were met through a peer support partner, he increased his academic completions and decreased competing behavior.

An academic or social goal often contains elements of behavior change. Usually, student behavior can be included as a barrier to goal success (i.e. *Phase 1, Question 3* – What must change for me to learn what I don't know; Phase 2, Question 6 – What could keep me from taking action?; and *Phase 3 – Question 10* – What barriers have been removed?). One example of a purely behavioral goal is included in Appendix C– that of Tom, who showed a great deal of tenacity when his teacher tried to redirect goal focus to academics.

Below is a summary checklist for use in goal setting and attainment activities. It is helpful to logically consider possible goals, using this framework.

Is the goal?

_____ Specific (not too narrow in focus, or too broad)

_____ Measurable or directly observable

_____ Relevant for student's environment and/or . . .
_____ An attempt to modify the environment of the student

_____ Attainable, but . . .
_____ Challenging enough

_____ Some issue or topic the student really wants to work on, and…
_____ Teacher approved

_____ Capacity building for the student or
_____ Process related

_____ Academic
_____ Social
_____ Behavioral

Chapter 5

Educational Supports: Choice and Decision Making

Choice

Choice is one of the most important factors in determining one's quality of life and involvement in decisions. Choice making has two components, according to Reid, Parsons & Green, (1991): the act of choosing and the identification of a preference. Choice making opportunities occur early in life and continue throughout the lifespan, but adults can structure the child's environment to encourage this. Parents should encourage choice making as soon as a child has some way to communicate (pointing, gesturing, or words). By starting with simple choices of which of two shirts to wear, or "more milk or juice?", children can learn increasingly complex choice making with multiple options as they grow and develop. Teachers also have a role in promotion of choice making, by consciously providing opportunities during learning activities to implement choice.

Choice making is an *Educational Support* that is used extensively in the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. It appears in all three phases of the model. In *Phase 1*, Set a goal, students need to identify strengths and instructional needs, as well as communicating preferences, interests, beliefs, and values. Students must be able to choose and make decisions regarding their priorities, resources, and barriers or problems. Later, in *Phase 2,* students choose a plan of action to work on their stated goal. *Phase 3* uses choice and decision making to evaluate goals and their outcomes.

Although many children in elementary school may be adept at making choices, learning activities need to be structured so that there is continued opportunity for choice making. In addition, students may need to be taught the best way to communicate their preferences, once they have made a choice. The process of communicating preferences includes learning social skills such as listening (receptive) and expressive communication, and using situation-appropriate means to do so. Teachers have the task of incorporating student choice throughout the curriculum. A model by Brown, Belz, Corsi & Wenig (1993) gives seven potential areas of choice within an activity:

- Choice of materials,
- Choice among different activities,
- Choice to refuse to participate in an activity,
- Choice of people to be included or excluded in an activity,
- Choice of location of an activity,
- Choice of time an activity should occur, and
- Choice to end a particular activity.

Providing choice in educational activities, often decreases challenging behavior, increases motivation, and supports general academic improvements (Cooper et al, 1992).

Decision making

Choice is part of the concept of decision making. Besides choosing among alternatives, and indicating preferences, individuals must use problem solving to determine the best, most effective solution in order to make a decision. Choice and decision making should be directly taught in educational settings. The processes can be learned and practiced by students, with guidance and support from interested adults. Decision making should be taught in elementary schools to enable students to practice this skill related to achieving self-determination.

Like choice making, decision-making is an *Educational Support* in all three Phases of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. When students are setting a goal (*Phase 1*), they must decide between possible alternatives. Then when adopting a plan (*Phase 2*) and adjusting that plan (*Phase 3*), decisions regarding self-evaluation must be made. At the end of the model, students must decide whether they have achieved their goal, if they want to set a new goal, or work on the current one longer, perhaps by adjusting their plan.

Many students with disabilities have little opportunity to make decisions about their education. When students have some experience in decision making, they will be better prepared to use this ability. Students who have not worked on this skill before will need additional time and scaffolding to support acquisition and generalization of the decision making process. Young people can practice decision making in their homes, with the support and assistance of their parents.

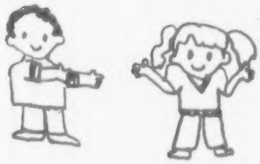
By direct teaching of the steps in the process, children can begin to learn and use effective decision making in many aspects of their lives. Patience is required, of course, and time factors may not always permit a full review of all alternatives. However, wherever possible, teachers and parents should include children in decision making related to *age-appropriate considerations*. Children experience relief when parents actually make major decisions for them and set appropriate limits of behavior. Adult protection and guidance is needed in issues that impact children's health, safety, well being, and future. Practice in decision making can be scaffolded by adults in a way which protects and preserves children from undue exposure to physical and psychological risk.

Sands and Doll (1998) list a number of application principles on the use of decision making in classrooms. These are adapted to reflect the early elementary-age focus of this Teacher's Guide:

- Plan classroom activities that encourage students to set their own goals.
- Provide additional options or help students to generate more options, since students are often limited by the number of options.

- Help students identify additional information that might be needed, or to check the accuracy of given information, in order to make effective choices and decisions.
- Have students think aloud when analyzing their decisions, so that student understanding of key information can be monitored. (Use Effective Listening, described in Chapter 3, to support this process).
- Encourage students to examine the relevance of information they have collected regarding a particular decision and to disregard information that is irrelevant or unimportant. Students need to realize that information sources may have a vested interest in providing biased information, and that they have to consider the source of the information and exercise caution regarding information use. Information from the Internet is not always accurate.
- Assist students with consideration of the risks and benefits of each solution that is generated. Help them consider the consequences of various plans of action. Enable students to realize both the positive and negative results for their options.
- Help students to analyze erroneous thinking patterns, with the understanding that adults and teenagers may attribute different values to risks and benefits.
- Enable students to rule out several alternatives, and then re-examine the remaining solutions, before making a final decision.
- Show sensitivity to student emotions, since many decisions are emotion-laden. Try to help students to realize that emotions or their impulsivity might cause them to make an immediate judgment, rather than one that is based on consideration of risk and benefits.
- Be understanding of the influence of conflict on decisions. Introduce the idea of compromising and negotiating in situations of conflict.
- Work with students who may be reluctant to make decisions by having them write down the information regarding various solutions, and the actual decision that they made.
- Assist students to think about the impact of their decisions, evaluate their effectiveness, and make changes as appropriate. *Phase 3* of the model provides a framework for evaluation.

Use of student-driven goals and problems to solve will focus the interest of children on decision making. Parents and teachers can introduce the idea of making choices and decisions, scaffold the activity so that it is within the zone of proximal development (not too hard or too easy), and enable children to begin the process of becoming independent decision-makers. Through guided practice of the process of decision making, children can start to become aware of personal strengths and weaknesses, understand concepts, become more involved in their world, work toward later independence of thought and actions, and gain a sense of self-efficacy or accomplishment related to academics and other knowledge.



Chapter 6

Educational Support: Problem solving

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction is a model based on problem solving. Teachers can use the model to teach learners to use problem solving strategies effectively. The children in the picture above have a problem. Both Tara and Stan want to use the computer at the same time. In order to solve this problem, both children generate a number of solutions to the problem, a hallmark of problem solving. In order to resolve the dilemma, Tara and Stan talk about the solutions and decide on one that might work. Problem solving is often confused with decision making. In decision making, one solution is chosen from many possible solutions, while the process of problem solving involves the *generation of, not merely the selection* of possible solutions. Through model use, students can become more effective, self-regulated problem solvers - able to recognize a problem, be able to generate solutions, and select one of these solutions to achieve a goal. Problem solving is a skill that is essential to the development of self-determination.

Agran and Wehmeyer (1999) define a problem as any task, activity, or situation for which a solution is not immediately identified, known, or obtainable. By using discussions, role playing, and direct teaching of problem solving procedures, teachers can assist students to gain skills in this process which is critical to later self-determination. Problem solving is the identification of solutions for a task, activity, or situation for which a solution does not readily exist. In the context of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, problem solving is often rephrased as goal-driven behavior, since problem solving tends to have many negative connotations.

Self-regulated problem solving refers to the idea that self-determined people "persistently regulate their problem solving to meet their own goals in life", (Wehmeyer et al., 1998). When people with disabilities are part of the community, they can experience a succession of problems. Self-regulation is the ability to examine one's environment and coping responses, to make decisions on how to act, to take action, to determine the outcomes of the action, and to revise plans, if necessary, (Whitman, 1990). Bronson (2000) suggests that self-regulation is a concept related to self-control, self-direction, and positive strategies for coping with life situations. It is synonymous with self-discipline, and possible from birth throughout the lifespan, depending on innate factors (temperament), related to social competence. Self-regulation is highly influenced by the environment. The skills associated with self-regulation include *goal-setting* (setting an achievable goal), as well as *self-monitoring* (observing and recording one's performance), and *self-reinforcement* (selection and delivery of a reinforcer), (Agran, 1997). Self-monitoring and self-reinforcement are discussed in Chapter 9.

According to Bransford and Stein (1984), "a problem exists when there is a discrepancy between an initial state and a goal state, and there is no ready-made solution for the problem solver", (p.7). A problem can be posed for which a person can generate a number of solutions, or the possible solutions must be researched through various means, because they are not known.

Teachers need to directly teach problem solving skills in the use of the model. Problem solving is included in all model phases and is an integral part of the self-determination skills that are needed for real-world functioning. In *Phase 1* of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, students are asked to solve the problem, "What is my goal?" Here, students are using the first component of a problem solving process by defining what exactly is the problem to solve. In other words, in order to solve a problem, the problem must first be identified. Students with disabilities are often unable to complete this first step of identifying and clearly stating the problem.

Phase 2 uses problem solving as a support strategy in setting up an action plan to work on the identified goal. In this phase, students will begin to design a solution and start implementing the solution, two more important steps in the problem solving strategy. *Phase 3*, the evaluative phase of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, uses the final component of problem solving, evaluating the effectiveness of the selected solution. Thus, by having the student thoughtfully complete the last four *Student Questions*, he or she is actually using evaluation to determine the effectiveness of the problem solving process, and how close to a solution, they have come. Then the student decides whether to work harder on the goal, choose a new one since they have completed it, or adjust their plan, so that their goal will be attained after further work.

Problem solving strategies may take extra time to teach during first use and initial practice. But these skills fulfill a life-long need to be able to approach a difficulty in a way that is productive, useful, and effective, depending on the expertise of the problem-solver. These strategies can be taught individually or in a group setting. Since all children could benefit from a review of the steps in problem solving, a group lesson would be helpful. But if the problem being discussed is one that may be private and confidential, an individual problem solving session would be necessary. In the case of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, if students have similar goals, then the process can be discussed as a small group, with necessary individualization, as needed. Care should be taken so that students have a voice in the process, rather than being influenced by classmates or the teacher to come to a conclusion that is not their own.

Another factor that might influence the time spent on the process of problem solving is the number of alternatives that are generated as solutions. Depending on the time that is available for the process, and the impact of the decision, teachers can support students to (1) define the problem, (2) generate solutions, (3) implement a solution, and (4) evaluate the effectiveness of the solution. In order to directly teach problem solving, the teacher may focus on any of the four components mentioned in this paragraph using role playing as a possible introductory strategy. The amount of instruction used with any component will depend on the needs of the student. For example, a student who is unable to define the problem (or in the case of the model, is unable to say "What is your goal?") will need to spend time on defining the problem and identifying the situation. The student who already knows what the problem is, but is unable to generate solutions, may need some assistance in that aspect of problem solving.

Student-involvement in setting goals related to problems can provide the motivation that is needed for learning. By being involved in this aspect, student interest in changing their behavior or orientation is already assured.

The school environment provides many problems for which solutions must be generated. For example, two students wish to spend their free period working on math computation on the computer. There are two students and only one computer. What solutions could be determined to solve this problem? Who will solve the problem, teacher or students? Another example is a student who wants to learn to read well enough to enter the annual public library reading contest. A plan can be determined that will generate a possible solution to this problem, depending on the abilities and work ethic of the student. This gap between a person's current situation and the expected outcome will be closed.

Chapter 7

Educational Supports:
Self-Instruction and Antecedent Cue Regulation

Self-Instruction

Self-instruction is the verbalization that a student does prior to performing a task. It is also called "self-talk", the process of verbalizing thoughts to monitor the cognitive process of an individual, or in this case, activate the performance of a task. For example, a student with lower cognitive skills may have difficulty remembering the sequence of a procedure they need to perform – such as how to start the computer and access the program that they wish to run. Many computers are set up so that students can easily access the information they wish to find, if the steps are followed in sequence. Written, verbal, or picture cues should be given, the student can access these, and then perform the action. The cue can be faded after the student begins anticipating the sequence, and verbalization can be continued by the student until the process becomes automatic.

Self-instruction provides a means for students with disabilities who have problems with short-term memory and retention of details, to rehearse their thoughts and perhaps give verbal cues to their actions in any problem solving activity. Teachers can begin to teach this skill in a group setting and then follow up individually, with students who need extra assistance, or specific instruction. In *Phase 2*, in the "Take Action" part of the model, self-instruction can be used to teach students a problem solving strategy tailored to their goal. *Student Questions 5* through *9* serve as a model for specifying self-instruction prompts that a child can begin to use to determine their Action Plan.

The first step in determining the script for self-instruction is to define the target behavior or action. In a goal that is set, some activity must occur in order to make progress. For example, Mary, a second grader, wants to learn to be the helper who maintains the classroom sports equipment for recess. In order to do this, there are certain required activities associated with this job, such as hanging the jump rope on the correct nail by the picture of the rope, and putting the soccer ball in the ball basket. By matching up the equipment with the picture posted near the required location, Mary can complete the task. The initial verbalization might be "I need to put the rope on the nail by the picture of the rope. Then I need to put the ball back in the ball basket. Perhaps a problem can be identified, such as "The green ball is missing, what do I do?" The solution might be that "I saw John playing with it, does he know where it might be? I need to ask John". Then, the response would be that "I need to go to John and ask him about the green ball". When the ball is found and stored, Mary may give herself some reinforcement for a job well done, such as saying "I did a good job!" This statement can serve as positive reinforcement for the tasks that were completed. Although many students may be able to do this activity without self-instruction cues, a child with developmental disabilities often will need assistance, especially when it is a new task. Again, the language that is verbalized is linked with the thought that must take place for task completion.

Self-instruction is helpful for students who set a goal related to work completed independently during class. The impulsive student can use self-talk to continue to work when interrupted. At first a student may say steps out loud, but soon these can be completed silently using only thought to control the behavior. If a child does not use self-talk, after instruction occurs, either the child has not yet learned to use this private speech to control behavior or they can use it so effectively that control occurs through covert speech. Watch a student carefully to see if they use the learning steps or if they need more instruction in self-talk.

In the case of complex task sequences, a script, using the words. "Did, Next, Now" could help. The younger student can verbalize, "I *did* turn off the electronic game, and *next* I should put it in the box. *Now* I need to set the box back on the shelf, exactly where the teacher wants it." Or, "When I used the telephone, I *did* pick up that part you listen in and *next*, I pushed the right numbers, I need to wait to see if someone answers".

For students who have a lot of problems using just verbalization in self-instruction, picture cues can be used, to learn the steps in any process. Students can then *match their activities and verbalizations* to the pictures in order to focus on the steps needed to complete the sequence. This is discussed in the next section, Antecedent Cue Regulation.

Antecedent Cue Regulation

Antecedent cue regulation involves the use of pictures, symbols, or other overt prompts such as audiotapes to encourage specific behaviors in learning. For students who do not read, picture cues can be the reminder notes or word cues that many people use in everyday life. Students may also prefer picture cues, so talk together to determine student preference. Some students with cognitive disabilities will need prompting to support completion of some unfamiliar tasks and many complex tasks, even if they are familiar. Picture cues have been demonstrated to be effective for students with limited verbal and reading skills, who may forget what to do next. This is one way that the student can adjust their environment to support their learning. Each of the prompts must be meaningful to the student and should be decided mutually by the student and teacher, to guarantee effectiveness.

These cues will be helpful during *Phase 2* of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, as the student decides what their plan will be and follows through with the plan. Picture cues may be necessary for students with more severe disabilities. However, many students in the early elementary grades enjoy this type of prompt more than reading the words, or in combination with written language.

Antecedent cues can be helpful for a variety of purposes. For the student who has difficulty staying on task, a tape or wristwatch might be set to automatically beep at specific intervals to remind the student to attend to task. If the student is working "on task" at the time of the beep, he or she can mark on a card that they are doing so. Intervals can be changed or completely faded, depending on the progress of the student. In this case the student is using self-instruction, self-monitoring, and self-scheduling to adjust their behavior through use of the prompts. Another student may need symbols to remember to prepare his or her materials for math class or another special time during the day. By using a checklist with symbols on it, this student can become more independent and prepared.

Some steps to work with a student using antecedent cue regulation are:

- Identify a task;
- Teacher and student must agree on the type of cue that works best;
- Consider complexity of the picture or drawing: photos, line drawings, symbols, or magazine pictures might work;
- Use trial and error to find the most effective cue;
- Once the cue is in place and the student is able to perform the task with more independence, teacher supervision of student activity will be decreased.

Direct teaching of the cue will need to be done. The student must be able to look at the picture cue or cues, perform the task, or follow the sequence. With some students, you will have to ensure that the student is able to recognize the symbol and identify it. Then the student must be taught to refer to the prompt and to perform the needed activity. The format for presentation of the cues may be a notebook, desktop cue card, or another such organizer of the pictures or symbols. If a student needs to perform the task in many different places, it should be portable for easy use and effective generalization of the skill. The student may need to be prompted to attend to the pictures as cues for a period of time, but the teacher can begin to fade their attention to this process as the student becomes more capable. After successful task completion over a period of time, the student may no longer need the picture prompts. However, if the student appears to need the prompts to promote independent activity of tasks, then they should be a necessary part of the task.

Chapter 8

Educational Support: Self-Management - Self-Monitoring, Self-Evaluation, and Self-Reinforcement

Self-management is an individual's use of documentation to monitor, evaluate, and/or reinforce his or her own behavior (King-Sears & Carpenter, 1997). This process actively involves students in monitoring and controlling their behaviors. Self-management has been very effective when used with students in elementary school to complete their work, follow classroom rules, increase on-task behavior, and decrease disruptive or inappropriate behaviors. The three major components of self-management (self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement) will be discussed both individually and collectively, since there is some overlap in processes and terminology.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction uses each of these three *Educational Supports* in *Phase 2*, as the student answers *Student Questions* related to developing and following a plan to achieve a goal. Students can be taught to use a self-monitoring strategy to effect behavior change related to the student's goal. In *Phase 2*, students use self-evaluation in the self-monitoring process to compare their own behavior to the standard that is set in the self-monitoring task. Self-evaluation is also used in *Phase 3* of the model, when the Student Questions are related to evaluation of the actions and thoughts related to goal achievement. Self-reinforcement is used in *Phase 2*, related to self-monitoring and self-evaluation. As a student sets a goal in *Phase 1* and then develops a plan and activates that plan in *Phase 2*, some mutually determined reinforcement could be used to encourage goal completion. The natural consequences of the results of goal progress would be the primary unit of reinforcement. Other reinforcers are those that are realistic, practical, and available in the context of the school or home.

Self-regulated behavior uses some aspects of self-management, which include self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement. Use of self-management provides a way for a student to use more independent performance and begin to become more self-determined. A teaching plan for enabling a student to use self-management techniques should include the following:

Self-Monitoring:

- Identification and understanding of the goal behavior or effort and the appropriate performance level using simple, concise language (Teacher and Student discussion),
- Development of a self-monitoring form or card using pictures, symbols, or words to provide a concrete way to measure behavior. (Teacher and Student discussion),
- Teacher instruction of the form or card, so that student understands its use,
- Student practice in using the form, with appropriate positive and negative feedback, from the teacher,

- Reinforcement of adequate performance, and
- Deciding when and where to use the monitoring process and what reward will be used for effective work (Teacher and Student).

Self-Evaluation:

- Comparing student performance with a standard or scale (for example, how does the number of student check marks compare to the specific standard that was set?) (Student, with teacher assistance)
- Talk about the effect of self-monitoring on the intended behavior. (Student and teacher)

Self-Reinforcement:

- Determining an appropriate reinforcement strategy within the natural environment (Student and Teacher)
- Talking about when to implement the reinforcement strategy (Student and teacher).

There are many benefits for teachers to assist students with disabilities and students in the general curriculum to use self-management. Use of self-management techniques may reduce the need for verbal prompts or physical reminders. Teachers and classroom aides can then spend more time working with students on additional activities. As students use self-management and become more self-aware, they become more independent and are able to use more self-directed strategies. Special education should encourage students to be more self-directed and self-regulated problem-solvers. Using self-management provides a means to achieve this important goal for special education and for general education, as well.

Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring is the process that involves the student recognizing and recording the occurrence or nonoccurrence of a behavior. First, the student must use self-observation to note the behavior and then record the action on a checklist or recording form.

After student goals are determined, teachers can enable student self-monitoring with goals that are observable, have discrete behaviors involved, and generally lend themselves to a recording of behavior occurrences. These behaviors should occur frequently enough to warrant monitoring, such as the number of times a student raises his hand and answers a question during class, working effectively during pre-determined blocks of seatwork time, or using social skills such as greeting others or talking to different students during recess.

With use of self-monitoring, a student is taught to recognize the behavior that is named, and how that behavior should occur in their environment. Direct teaching is needed to effectively implement self-monitoring. There is a reactive effect for self-monitoring with behavior change that is the result of the process of focusing on the monitored behavior. Even if the student does not chart their behavior as accurately as the teacher, the focus of self-monitoring on specific behaviors tends to change behavior in the desired direction. Mahoney and Thoresen (1974) found that self-regulated behaviors are increased through the process of being attended to and recorded.

Here is one example of a self-monitoring chart for a student's reading assignment. It can be used for the child to record what he or she accomplished to keep a visual record of time spent and activities completed. A calendar or other simple chart can be used to self-monitor, depending on the activity.

	Mon.	**Tues.**	**Wed.**	**Thurs.**	**Fri.**	**Sat.**	**Sun.**
Read 15 min.							
Tell about what I read							

Self-Evaluation

Self-evaluation is the comparison of one's own behavior with that of a self-or externally determined standard. Not only does a student need to know that a behavior has been changed in some way (through self-monitoring), but the student must also be able to compare the behavior to some standard and then make some judgement about the quantity or quality of their performance (King-Sears & Carpenter, 1997). Self-evaluation should follow self-monitoring of behavior and determine self-reinforcement. This makes self-evaluation a critical skill to enhance student self-involvement in goal setting and problem solving activities.

Self-Reinforcement

Self-reinforcement follows self-evaluation in the group of self-management behaviors. It is an important step that occurs when a student selects a consequence for behavior performance (or non-performance), after meeting pre-established performance standards. According to King-Sears and Campbell (1997), students can self-reinforce when they are able to recognize the occurrence of the specific behavior and determine whether the level of performance meets the criteria. If the behavior is sufficient, then the student rewards him or herself. This reward is often more effective than teacher delivery of a reward, since it is often more meaningful, is mutually determined by student and teacher, and delivered immediately following task completion. Rewards can be socially delivered, but token systems are also quite effective. If possible, tangible rewards should be replaced with praise, or situation specific reinforcers such as time to draw, write, or play games.

Self-reinforcement requires the ability to discriminate the behavior that is the target and the subsequent delivery of the reinforcer, if adequate standards are met. Direct teaching of the recognition of target behavior can be accomplished during self-monitoring. The student should be able to identify what the behavior encompasses and what it does not. If the student can not discriminate the behavior, then self-reinforcement will not be suitable. The teacher and student need to clearly identify the contingent reward, which could be time at the computer, time to draw, extra free time, or a sticker. However, the reinforcer must be available in the environment so that the student can deliver this when needed, rather than waiting for the teacher to recognize the occurrence. The student-determined, teacher-approved reinforcer provides opportunities for the student to experience increased control of his or her learning.

Teachers should consider the following points when implementing a self-management procedure with students:

- Student and teacher must mutually decide on the topic for self-management activities,
- Start with simple tasks and uncomplicated systems of self-management,
- Direct instruction of procedures should be done at least the first three times the procedure is used, with follow-up monitoring to ensure that the student understands the task,
- Formal teacher observation of student self-monitoring should occur at least once a week, with daily informal monitoring to promote success,
- Teachers should chart the performance of students so that progress (or the lack of progress) is visible over time,

If self-management activities are to be meaningful, teachers should extend the use of these techniques to promote generalization. King-Sears and Carpenter (1997) make suggestions to extend the use of self-management activities to other skills and behaviors:

- Develop self-management forms and checklists which can be used for various behaviors with little adaptation,
- Talk with families regarding the things that their child could learn to do at home and assist in a self-management tool for a child to remember to make their bed, put away their clean clothes, or similar tasks,
- Make sure that each adult who has some contact with the child knows the behaviors that are being self-managed, to ensure generalization across settings and groups,
- Have materials for self-management (checklists, paperwork) available in other settings,
- Remember to fade use of materials when desirable or independent behavior is occurring,
- If tangible reinforcers are used, replace as soon as possible with social reinforcers,
- Increase the interval of time that a student must wait for reinforcement, depending on student characteristics, the nature of the task, and time limits within the environment,
- Monitor appropriate behavior, even after self-management techniques are no longer being used.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction uses many Educational Supports, but self-management is one that can be universally effective – especially with behavioral or task completion outcomes. Being able to self-manage, self-evaluate, and self-reinforce are critical abilities that lead to self-regulated learning throughout life.

Chapter 9

Communication Skills and Self-Advocacy

Communication Skills Training

Young children need to be able to communicate in their world – at home, school, and in the community. Communication skills in the context of this model include social skills that are individual and assist with peer relationships. These skills move from simple interaction and choice making to more complex social problem solving. When talking about the development of self-determination in young children, the issues of assertiveness training and self-advocacy instruction co-occur with communication and social skills training. Some young children with disabilities need to become more assertive/less passive, in order to manage their learning and social abilities. Social interaction is often a problem for many young children, but especially so for young children with cognitive disabilities.

Communication skills training can be used in all three phases of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. If a problem related to communication and social skills is identified, what should a teacher or parent do? As the child works on the *Student Questions* of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, there will be some opportunity to discuss social skills. A social goal provides a forum for further discussion of social skills. If another type of goal is set, there are always barriers or problems related to attainment that must be discussed. Social skills can be addressed when answering questions related to "What must change for me to learn what I don't know?" or "What can I do to make this happen?" in *Phase 1*. Then again in making a plan (*Phase 2*) and evaluating the plan or goal (*Phase 3*), social skills can be encouraged. A student may need assistance with communicating their answers to any of the twelve *Student Questions*. Training in communication skills will be needed to assist in every phase of a goal concerning social interaction, if that is one the student selects.

Teachers, according to McClellan and Katz (1991), should consider the following information prior to assisting young students with communication skills:

- Children have distinct personalities and temperaments,
- Family relationships affect social behavior,
- Social behavior is culturally determined, so the teacher's cultural norms and the culture of the school may conflict with that of the student,
- Teachers should assist in helping students of all cultures and/or abilities to work with and enjoy each other,
- Teachers should be proactive in creating an open, honest and accepting classroom community.

It is ethical to discuss social skills in the context of the classroom and school environment. Even though each student has distinct influences from their own home and family, they also need to learn to conform to classroom rules and regulations, if at all possible. It is appropriate and desirable for children to learn to be able to make adjustments based on each situation and context. If information is posed in terms related to school success and peer interaction within the school culture, teachers can be relatively certain that they are being culturally fair. Teachers also need to be aware of individual differences that result from a child's disability and sensitive to how these affect relationships within the classroom.

Many programs for developing social skills are commercially available. Teachers can adapt parts of these to work in conjunction with identified needs for their students. Group instruction using role playing is effective as a way to model appropriate behavior. Role playing can be adapted to many specific topics, especially social problems and their solutions. The problems should be general enough to include most members of the group, not highlight the individual differences of one member.

Joyce and Weil (1996), offer suggestions for role playing another educational model:

(1) Warm up the group by identifying the problem in an explicit way, exploring issues, and explaining role playing in general,
(2) Select participants by analyzing the roles and accepting volunteers or selecting role players from the group,
(3) Set the stage for activity by delineating the action that will take place, restating the roles of the participants, and examining the problem again.
(4) Prepare the observers by deciding what to look for and assigning observation tasks to others who do not have a direct part,
(5) Begin the role playing until it comes to a defined end,
(6) Discuss and evaluate the activity by reviewing the action, looking at the focus, and set the stage for another enactment of the action,
(7) Reenact role playing, using revised roles, suggesting the next steps or skills that should be used,
(8) Discuss and evaluate the activity again, highlighting focus, and what occurred,
(9) Share experiences and generalize by relating the problem to the current situation and talking about general principles of behavior.

It is often difficult to isolate a reason for a child's inability to communicate. The work of McClellan and Katz (1991) provides a clear profile for examining social skills for children in the early grades of elementary school. The checklist for early childhood is divided into three sections: Individual Attributes, Social Skill Attributes, and Peer Relationship Attributes and is adapted for ages 5-8 years.

Individual Attributes: The child . . .
_____ Is usually in a positive mood
_____ Is not excessively dependent on the teacher, teacher assistant, or other adults
_____ Usually comes to the class or setting willingly
_____ Usually copes with problems and limitations easily
_____ Can empathize with others
_____ Enjoys positive relationships with one or two peers (cares about them, misses them if they are absent
_____ Has the capacity for humor
_____ Does not appear to be consistently lonely

Social Skills Attributes: The child usually:
_____ Approaches others positively
_____ Can express wishes and preferences clearly
_____ Has reasons for actions that he or she takes
_____ Asserts rights and needs appropriately
_____ Is not easily intimidated by bullies
_____ Can express anger or frustration without harming others
_____ Can play or work with others by gaining access to these groups
_____ Can participate in an ongoing discussion, by making appropriate contributions
_____ Takes turns fairly easily
_____ Shows interest in others
_____ Can exchange information with peers
_____ Negotiates and compromises with others
_____ Does not draw inappropriate attention to self
_____ Accepts and enjoys peers and adults of different ethnic groups
_____ Displays non-verbal interaction with other children

Peer Relationship Attributes: The child is
_____ Usually accepted versus neglected or rejected by other children
_____ Sometimes invited by other children to join them in play, friendship, and work.

These skills should be evaluated over a period of time, as opposed to a short-term evaluation. Several months is suggested, so that a child has time to adjust to new situations and people. As skill deficits are identified, these can be addressed using direct instruction, modeling, structured skill rehearsal, generalizing the skill to other settings, and. role playing – if applicable to the situation.

Some additional suggestions for intervention with social needs include:

- Find a quiet time and place to talk with the child,
- As you work on *Student Questions* of the model, talk further about social issues,
- Use open-ended questions to find out whether the child acknowledges the difficulty he or she is experiencing,

- If he or she does not acknowledge it, focus attention on difficulties in a calm, but specific manner,
- Assist the child to consider the possibility of altering his/her behavior and seeing positive consequences from this change,
- Help identify alternate behavior to replace actions which are causing difficulty,
- Anticipate situations which will need this type of action or behavior and talk about these,
- Determine a mutual way that the child can monitor and practice this improved behavior,
- Use role playing, discussion, and direct teaching methods to illustrate behaviors and the consequences, and
- Offer praise and support over time for improvement in social skills.

Social problem solving uses communication and social skills in combination to solve a problem related to a social situation. By use of choice and decision making combined with problem solving, an individual can find a solution to a social problem. Platt and Hermalin (1989) list several skills required for social problem solving: (1) recognition of the problem, (2) optional thinking or generation of alternatives, (3) causal thinking, (4) means-end thinking or step-by-step planning, (5) consequential thinking, and (6) role-taking or metarepresentation.

Social problem solving is not easy to teach, but deserves attention for remediation. Hechinger (1992) assures us that problem solving skills can be taught and that "it is a great mistake to assume that young people will acquire these skills automatically", (p.128). Otherwise students will move through their school years without such instruction and be unprepared to assume roles in the community upon graduation. By scaffolding developing skills in social problem solving, young children with disabilities can become more self-determined as they continue to practice these skills. Use of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction, the identification of problems and solutions, and the evaluation of those activities also can assist in the process of practicing social skills.

Advocacy and Speaking Up for Yourself

Advocacy means to speak up for oneself or for a cause or position. Students in elementary school are rarely called upon to be their own advocate. However, there are times that being able to make something happen at school or in the community requires the ability to be an advocate. The skills for self-advocacy are based in social interaction and communication skills: knowing when and where to talk, how to take turns listening to others, and deciding who is the best person or office to approach. People who are self-advocates can communicate their feelings, points of view, and desires, as well as information about disabilities to others. A child who can speak up for him/herself will practice this role throughout school and display self-determined behavior in many settings. Young children can begin to use self-advocacy skills with an adult's help.

Social interaction is sometimes a challenge for young children, but especially so for children with cognitive disabilities. Depending on his or her disability, a child may be limited by language or may not have a way to communicate that is easily understood by others. Children who are unnaturally quiet or often worried about what others will think need support to be more active communicators, rather than being passive much of the time. On the other hand, children who tend to speak out unasked in the classroom or who verbally express their priorities need to communicate more effectively and quietly. A balance needs to occur, depending on the individual differences of the child who is developing advocacy skills.

Children can learn advocacy skills, practice these skills, and then begin to generalize these abilities to other settings. Learning to talk about what you like and do not enjoy is a way to become more assertive. Practicing at home about what to say and do in various situations will benefit a child's communication and understanding. Using the skills that are learned and practiced will be easier at school if teachers can give some cues to children as well as help them understand when to use their advocacy skills or generalize what is known to other situations. Generalizing skills relates to being able to use the same or a similar skill in many different places, not just the one where you learned to do it. Supporting self-advocacy can begin when children are younger. This provides more time for children with disabilities to practice and generalize abilities for advocacy.

Parents may wish to help children with self-advocacy and speaking up for oneself in everyday situations such as the grocery store, the library, or a fast food restaurant. Children can be supported to make some choices and decisions about food, books or other topics and then be part of making those selections happen using advocacy skills. Parents can help their children become more self-sufficient in familiar places that they visit often, to support continued self-advocacy for later years. School provides a number of opportunities for self-advocacy training. For example, Hank's favorite subject is science. Because of his speech therapy schedule, he was unable to be in science class. Hank asked for help from the special educator to coach him in the best way to ask for a change in his schedule.

Other ideas for practicing self-advocacy might be in groups with other students – remembering to take a turn to speak rather than waiting for someone to ask your opinion or listen when needed, rather than talking all the time. An older child may need to ask their paraprofessional to "Just help me when I ask for it – I need to get my materials ready for class just like all the other kids do". Or, if someone asks about an apparent disability, a child should have some phrase to say that explains that their disability does not define them as a person. For example, when asked about her hearing aid, Charlene can say, "These help me hear better, but otherwise I am the same as other kids".

Teachers notice when a task is too hard for children to complete. They can remind students to ask for help when it is needed. Speaking up for oneself can be used with the Self-Determined Learning Model if the student's goal relates to such an issue, or if a barrier to success can be overcome by being assertive.

In order to organize your thinking about self-advocacy, you might work with your students on being able to identify themselves and their disability. Also, understanding the rules of home or school would be helpful in supporting your child's behavior and communication. Below is a short form that may be useful for students to prepare for self-advocacy with your support. Children can start to become their own advocate, so that they can learn to be safe and feel important. There are many opportunities for children to be answering some of the many questions that might arise due to their disability. A blank Who am I? form for self-advocacy is in Appendix C to copy for your students.

Who am I?

My first name is: *Betty* **My last name is:** *Zay*

Parent name(s): *John and Mary Zay*

My brothers and sisters: *Jerry (age 3)*

I live at: *100 Smith Drive* **in** *Everywhere*

in the state of Happiness

My telephone number is: *000-0000*

Things I like to do: *draw pictures, read books*

Here's what I say to tell people what I can do for myself: *I can get to class and hang up my jacket and put my books away myself. I go to the school library to check out books, but I might need your help to reach a book on the top shelf. I can cut my sandwich up but would like you to carry my tray to the tray return when we are finished with lunch. I can push my chair myself, but thank you for your offer of help.*

Here's what I say to tell people what I may not be able to do alone: *Getting my wheelchair to be where everyone else is playing, having someone help me on the playground*

Rules and Extra Help:

At *school* I know the rules of my classroom. These are the ones that are really important: *Be kind to everyone, say only nice things, ask the teacher for help when I need it, and remember to put away my drawings before I do classwork.*

At *home* I know the rules and expectations of my parents. These are the ones that are really important: *Let my mother or dad know when I need help lifting something heavy, pick only one television show to watch every night, and be sure my baby brother is not under the wheels of my chair when I move it.*

I need to ask questions *at school or home* when: *I don't know what to do next, I am hungry, or I don't know something.*

At *school*, I help these people (list of people and what I do for them): *Mrs. Jones–I put the menu on the bulletin board, Mr. Jeffries-help put up the flag, Amanda–I am her reading buddy to help with words. Terry–trade seats during math so he can see better.*

At *school*, I can ask these people if I have a question or need something: *Mr. Jones, Miss Henry, Mr. Smith, and Sarah, my buddy for this week*

In my *neighborhood and at home*, I can help these people (names and what I do for them): *Mr. Baxter- play with his dog, Snoopy; Mrs. Smith–say hello to her and talk with her when she is outside her house; Annie–help her do her math homework after school; my little brother–play with him so my mother can cook dinner*

In *my neighborhood and at home*, I can ask these people if I have a question or need something: *Barbie, Suzy, Mary, and Mrs. Perkins, Mom, and Dad*

Here's how I ask people to help me:
First, I look at them to make sure they are looking at me. Then, I ask them to hold the door for me, or to put my books in my backpack. If they are busy, I ask someone to help.

I need to remember to do this to communicate better: Look at people when I talk with them, so that they look at me, too.

If someone asks, here's how I explain about any disability I have: *When I was born, I could not move my legs, so I have to sit in a wheelchair to move very far.*

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Appendix A

Children's Books about Problem Solving

Children's Books about Problem Solving

Parents and teachers can read these books to children and talk about how the characters in the stories solve problems and set goals. They can also enjoy being together and sharing the pleasure of reading and the discovery of "new friends" in children's literature.

Alexander, Martha. *You're a Genius, Blackboard Bear.* Cambridge, MA: Candlewick Press, 1995, 22 pp.
ISBN: 1-56402-238-2
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Anthony gets some help from Blackboard Bear to build a spaceship to the moon.

Allen, Pamela. *Who Sank the Boat?* New York: Putnam, 1982, 28 pp.
ISBN: 0-698-11373-X 28
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: The reader is invited to guess who causes the boat to sink when five animals of varying sizes decide to go for a row.

Ames, Michael. *The Wonderful Box.* New York: E. P. Dutton, 1978, 26 pp.
ISBN: 0-525-43200-0
Pictures: Black and white
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Three children find a large, beautifully wrapped box, turn it in at the police station, and wait thirty days while wondering what is inside.

Armitage, Ronda & Armitage, David. *Ice Cream for Rosie.* London: Deutsch, 1981, 28pp.
ISBN: 0-233-97361-3
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Rosie's shop runs out of ice cream, and she solves the problem.

Atwater, Robert & Atwater, Florence. *Mr. Popper's Penguins.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1938 and 1966, 139 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-05842-4
Pictures: Black and white
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: Mr. Popper, a house painter, dreams of going to the polar regions. An unexpected delivery of a large crate of Antarctic penguins changes his life.

Berenstain, Stan & Berenstain, Jan. *The Berenstain Bears' Trouble with Money*. New York: Random House, 1983, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-394-85917-0
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Brother and Sister Bear learn some important lessons about earning and spending money.

Brillhart, Julie. *Story Hour - Starring Megan*. Morton Grove, IL: Albert Whitman & Co., 1992, 28 pp.
ISBN: 0-8075-7628-X
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: When Megan's mother, the librarian, cannot read to the children at a story hour, beginning reader Meagan takes over the job.

Brown, Marc. *Arthur's Eyes*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1979, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-11063-9
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: When Arthur gets his new glasses, his friends tease him, but soon he learns to wear the glasses with pride.

Brown, Marc. *Arthur Goes to Camp*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1982, 31 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-11218-6
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Arthur does not want to be at Camp Meadowcroak, and when mysterious things start happening there, he decides to run away.

Brown, Marc. *Arthur Meets the President*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1991, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-11265-8
Pictures: Color
Level: K–2
Brief Description: Arthur's essay wins a contest, and he has to recite it to the President of the United States. Arthur is nervous.

Brown, Marc. *Arthur's Computer Disaster*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1997, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-11016-7
Picture: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Arthur disobeys his mother by playing his favorite game on her computer. He learns a lesson in taking responsibility for his actions.

Browne, Anthony. *Bear Hunt*. New York: Doubleday, 1979, 22 pp.
ISBN: 0-385-41568-0
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Bear goes for a walk in the jungle and solves his problem of escaping the hunters by using his magic pencil.

Browne, Eileen. (Illustrated by David Parkins.) *No Problem*. Cambridge, MA: Candlewick Press, 1993, 32 pp.
ISBN: 1-56402-176-9
Pictures: Color
Level: K-2
Brief Description: Mouse's friends take turns putting together the pieces that come in a box as a birthday present, but only Shrew, who takes the time to read the instructions, is able to build something that really works.

Buchanan, Heather S. *George and Matilda Mouse and the Moon Rocket*. New York: Simon & Schuster, 1991, 25 pp.
ISBN: 0-671-75864-0
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: When George and Matilda Mouse search, with a rocket, for a missing moon, Matilda nearly loses her life.

Cleary, Beverly. (Illustrated by Mary Stevens.) *The Real Hole*. New York: William Morrow & Co., 1960, 30 pp.
ISBN: 60-5797 (Library of Congress)
Pictures: Some Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Jimmy likes to do real things, so his father gives him a shovel and he digs a hole. Jimmy's dad solves the problem of what to do with the hole.

Clymer, Ted & Mills, Miska . (Illustrated by Leslie Morrell) *Horse and the Bad Morning*, New York: E.P. Dutton, 1982, 27 pp.
ISBN: 0-525-45103X
Pictures: Black and white
Level: K–2
Brief Description: Of all the animals in the barnyard, only Horse can find nothing good about his morning and what he sees every day. His friend, Mouse, comes up with a plan to make him feel better.

Cole, Babette. *Princess Smartypants*. New York: Putnam, 1986, 29 pp.
ISBN: 0-399-21409-7
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Princess Smartypants does not want to marry any of her royal suitors. She finds difficult tasks that no one can solve–except one person.

Cooney, Nancy Evans. (Illustrated by Diane Dawson.) *The Blanket That Had to Go*. New York: Putnam, 1981, 27 pp.
ISBN: 0-399-20716-3
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Suzie takes her blanket everywhere. Her mother tells her she can't take the blanket with her to kindergarten. What does Suzie do?

Cooney, Nancy Evans. *Donald Says Thumbs Down*. New York: Putnam, 1987, 27 pp.
ISBN: 0-399-21373-2
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Donald is too old to suck his thumb. His preschool friends laugh at him when he does it. Donald finally decides how to solve his problem.

Demerest, Chris L. *No Peas for Nellie*. New York: Aladdin Books, 1991, 29 pp.
ISBN: 0-689-71474-2
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Nellie tells her parents all the things she would rather eat than peas (spider, aardvarks, crocodile). While she talks about peas, she finishes them all.

Galdone, Paul. *The Magic Porridge Pot*. New York: Seabury Press, 1976, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-8164-3173-6
Pictures: Color
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: The porridge pot makes food for the little girl, but problems start when her mother tries to use it.

Hopkinson, Deborah. *Sweet Clara and the Freedom Quilt*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993, 31 pp.
ISBN: 0-679-82311-5
Pictures: Color
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: In order to get out of the fields, Clara learns how to sew, but as she learns her trade, she also figures out a way to make a quilt with a map pattern that guides her and others to freedom in the North.

Hughes, Shirley. *An Evening at Alfie's*. New York: William Morrow, 1984, 29 pp.

ISBN: 0-688-04122-1
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: While Alfie's parents are out one evening, a burst pipe causes chaos, but Alfie, his babysitter, and the sitter's parents find a solution.

Hutchins, Pat. *The Doorbell Rang.* New York: Greenwillow Books, 1986, 22 pp.
ISBN: 0-688-052-5
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Every time the doorbell rings, more people arrive to share the cookies.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Goggles!* New York: Macmillan, 1969, 32 pp.
ISBN: 70-78081
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Peter finds some motorcycle goggles, but some older boys want to take them away from him. Peter; Willie, his dog; and his friend Archie figure out how to get away from the older boys and still keep the goggles.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Whistle for Willie.* New York: Viking Press, 1964, 28 pp.
ISBN: 670-76240-7
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Peter wished that he could whistle, but he couldn't. So as he played, he continued to try to whistle until he finally learned how.

Kellogg, Steven. *The Mystery of the Stolen Blue Paint.* New York: Dial Press, 1982, 27 pp.
ISBN: 0-8037-5654-2
Pictures: Black, white, and blue
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Belinda has set out to paint a picture and is followed along by her cousin and some of his friends. When a windstorm blows up, she has to chase her picture down. Meanwhile, her blue paint has disappeared. That is when Inspector Belinda Baldini takes over to find the blue paint.

Krischanitz, Raoul. *Nobody Likes Me!* New York: North-South Books, 1999, 26 pp.
ISBN: 0-7358-1055-9
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Buddy is a new dog in town, and when he tries to make new friends, he gets the idea that nobody likes him. A fox that sees him crying gives him an idea to find out why nobody likes him.

Krous, Robert & Krous, Bruce. *The Detective of London*. New York: Windmill Books and E. P. Dutton, 1978, 30 pp.

ISBN: 0-525-61568-7
Pictures: None
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: Professor Herringbone has unearthed bones of great dinosaurs, which are to be displayed for the Queen of England until they mysteriously disappear. The Detective of London uses many different approaches to find them.

Lobel, Arnold. *A Treeful of Pigs*. New York: Greenwillow Books, 1979, 26 pp.

ISBN: 0-688-80177-3
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: A farmer decides to buy some pigs and promises his wife that he will help her take care of them. He is very lazy, however, so his wife uses a variety of creative solutions to motivate him.

Mahoney, Daniel J. *The Saturday Escape*. New York: Clarion Books, 2002, 31 pp.

ISBN: 0-618-13326-7
Pictures: Color
Level: K-1
Brief Description: Three friends feel guilty about going to story hour at the library
instead of doing what their parents told them to do.

Maris, Ron. *Hold Tight, Bear!* New York: Delacorte Press, 1988, 28 pp.

ISBN: 88-18102
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Bear and his friends decide to go for a picnic. After traveling a long way, everyone is tired except Bear. While the others take a rest, Bear continues exploring and then ends up falling over a ledge. A robin flies back to get Bear's friends, and they find a way to save Bear.

McDonald, Megan. *The Great Pumpkin Switch*. New York: Orchard Books, 1991, 34 pp.
ISBN: 0-531-05450-0
Pictures: Color
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: A grandfather tells a story of how he and his friend accidentally smashed a pumpkin that his sister was growing for a contest and how they found a replacement.

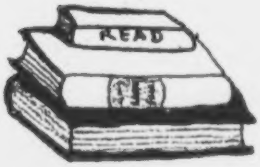
Muth, Jon J. The Three Questions. New York: Scholastic Inc., 2002, 28 pp.
ISBN: 0-439-19996-4
Pictures: Color
Level: K-3
Brief Description: Nicolai asks his animal friends to help him answer three
important
questions: "When is the best time to do things?" "Who is the most important one?" and "What is the right thing to do?

Silverstein, Alvin, Silverstein,Virginia, & Nunn, Laura Silverstein. *A Pet or Not?* Bookfield, CT: Twenty-first Century Books, 1999, 48 pp.
ISBN: 0-7613-3230-8
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: This book discusses some strange pets. Children can use it to find out more about some strange animals and what these animals may be like as pets.

Small, David. *Imogene's Antlers*. New York: Random House, 1985, 32 pp.
ISBN: 0-517-56242-1
Pictures: Color
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: Imogene grows antlers and has a few problems getting through her day.

Titus, Eve. *Anatole and the Cat*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957, 32 pp.
ISBN: 57-10229
Pictures: Color
Levels: K–1
Brief Description: Anatole Mouse works as a cheese taster at a cheese factory and runs into a cat one night. He comes up with a solution on how to work without worrying about the cat.

Appendix B



Suggestions for Further Reading

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Suggestions for Further Reading

Communication/Social Emotional Issues

Title: *Childhood Speech, Language, and Listening Problems: What Every Parent Should Know,*
2nd ed., 218 pp.
Author: Patricia McAleer Hamaguchi
Publication Date: 2001
Publisher: John Wiley & Sons
Address: Professional, Reference and Trade Group, 605 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10158-0012
Written for: Parents
Price: $15.95, paperback
ISBN: 0-471-38753-3
Topics: Communication problems
Age Range: All
Summary: This is a guide for parents who are concerned that their child is not progressing typically with communication skills. Its purpose is to provide parents with general information about communication and advice for parents who fear that their child is falling behind in speech, language, and listening skills. The first part of the book addresses how children learn to communicate, when parents should seek help, and what kinds of services and professionals are available. The second part focuses on specific communication problems and how they are diagnosed, characterized and treated; what parents can do to help their child; and causes or conditions associated with speech, language, and listening problems. The appendixes include lists of organizations and agencies for more information about communication problems and associated disabilities. The book contains a list of suggested reading resources and a glossary.

Title: *Choices: Opportunities for Life, 32 pp.*
Authors: Carolyn Anderson, parent advocate, with Virginia Richardson, parent training manager, and Betty Binkard
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: PACER Center
Address/Phone No.: 4826 Chicago Avenue South, Minneapolis, MN 55417-1098. (612) 827-2966
Written for: Parents
Price: $8.00
Topic: Developing decision making in young children with disabilities
Age Range: Primarily young children, but applicable to children of all ages
Summary: This straightforward book for parents explains the importance of decision making for young children and its positive effects as they grow into adulthood. Basic steps and techniques

are outlined to provide parents with a place to start allowing decision making to become a part of everyday life for their children. Parents learn how to develop and provide opportunities for their children to use their decision-making skills continually.

Title: *How to Talk So Kids Can Learn—At Home and in School*, 272 pp.
Authors: Adele Faber & Elaine Mazlish
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: Fireside
Address: Rockefeller Center, 1230 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10020
Written for: Parents and teachers
Price: $12.00
ISBN: 0-684-82472-8
Topics: Communication skills
Age Range: All
Summary: Although written from a teacher's point of view, this book is for both teachers and parents. It discusses traditional methods of communication, punishment, praise, and criticism; and it offers alternative methods that help build cooperation, self-esteem, confidence, and self-discipline. Its format incorporates problem-solving methods, cartoons to show how situations can be handled, and questions and stories from parents and teachers. A resource for additional reading is also provided.

Inclusion

Title: *A Place for Me: Including Children With Special Needs in Early Care and Education Settings*, 85 pp.
Author(s): Phyllis A. Chandler
Publication Date: 1994
Publisher: The National Association for the Education of Young Children
Address/Phone No.: 1509 16th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036-1426 202/232-8777 800/424-2460
Written For: Early Childhood Teachers
Price: $ 4.50
ISBN: 0-935989-59-5
Topics: Including children with special needs in early childhood education programs
Summary: This book provides basic information about including children with special needs into a childcare, preschool, or kindergarten through 3rd program. It helps teachers understand the benefits of including children with special needs into a typical early childhood environment and addresses common feelings about persons with special needs. The book offers practical information on how to prepare the classroom environment, the importance of understanding and knowing the child with special needs, enabling children with typical needs to understand

differences, and working with parents and other agencies that are involved in the child's educational goals.

Title: *Quick-Guides to Inclusion: Ideas for Educating Students with Disabilities,* 139 pp.
Author(s): Michael F. Giangreco, Ph.D.
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.
Address / Phone No.: P.O. Box 10624, Baltimore, Maryland 21285-0624 800-638-3775
Written For: Teachers
Price: $21.95 paperback
ISBN: 1-55766-303-3
Topics: Inclusion of students with disabilities
Age Range: All
Summary: This is a guidebook for teachers needing concise and quick tips and information to facilitate the inclusion of students with disabilities in the regular education classroom. The book is divided into 5 "Quick-Guides" which cover the issues of including students with disabilities, partnerships with parents, partnerships with paraprofessionals, supportive services, and positive behavioral supports. Each "Quick-Guide" introduces the content with a letter to the teacher, gives a list of 10 "Guidelines-at-a-Glance," provides a page for each guideline, and contains a set of selected references.

Title: *Quick-Guides to Inclusion 2: Ideas for Educating Students with Disabilities,* 139 pp.
Author(s): Michael F. Giangreco
Publication Date: 1998
Publisher: Paul H. Brooks Publishing Co.
Address / Phone No.: P.O. Box 10624, Baltimore, Maryland 21285-0624 800-638-3775
Written For: Teachers
Price: $21.95 paperback
ISBN: 1-55766-335-1
Topics: Inclusion of students with disabilities
Age Range: All
Summary: This is the companion book to Quick-Guides to Inclusion. It adds 5 more "Quick-Guides" dealing with curriculum, instructional strategies, communication systems, administration, and transition from school to adult life. It is arranged like the original: a teacher letter to introduce the content, a list of the Guidelines-at-a-Glance, a page of text for each "guide-line," and a list of references. This guide builds on the important issues in the first guidebook and both together offer tremendous information in quick, easy-to-read formats.

Title: *Social Skills Activities for Special Children,* 405pp.
Author(s): Darlene Mannix
Publication Date: 1993
Publisher: The Center for Applied Research in Education
Address/Phone Number: West Nyack, NY 10994
Written For: Teachers of children with special needs, some portions are directed to parents for reinforcement at home.
Price: $ 33.50 - The Psychological Corp. 1-800-211-8378
ISBN: 0-87628-868-9
Topics: Social Skills
Age Range: Elementary, possibly through 8th grade depending on presentation
Summary: This book is a tool for teachers to use when guiding students in the understanding of social skills. It contains 3 sections: Accepting Rules And Authority At School, Relating To Peers, and Developing Positive Social Skills. Each section contains different parts, which emphasize specific social skill areas. The lessons within these parts include an objective, thinking questions that help to focus on problem solving, an activity page, and ideas for follow-up. Each section begins with parent letters to facilitate communication between the classroom and home, classroom ideas for extending learning to other areas, and a story whose characters are learning and developing appropriate social skills.

Title: *Playground Politics: Understanding the Emotional Life of Your School-Age Child,* 315 pp.
Author: Stanley I. Greenspan, M.D., with Jacqueline Salmon
Publication Date: 1993
Publisher: Addison Wesley
Written for: Parents
Price: $13.00, paperback
ISBN: 0-201-40830-9
Topics: Understanding the emotional challenges of the middle years of childhood.
Age Range: 5 to 12
Summary: *Playground Politics* goes far beyond informing parents of what happens on the playground. It revisits the grade-school years and helps parents understand the changes and challenges children encounter as they face emotional milestones. The authors explain how children see themselves and how they relate to others. They introduce five steps that parents can use to support their children through this development. The book highlights stories of children with emotional challenges and describes how their parents learned to use the process to support their children as they worked through them. It addresses such issues as aggression, rivalry, competition, self-esteem, and peer relations, and it examines learning challenges and other school-related topics, as well as sexuality and puberty, and balancing fantasy and reality. The afterward identifies the milestones for the different stages of the middle years and describes the general expectations for children in each stage.

Title: *Why Don't They Like Me? Helping Your Child Make and Keep Friends,* 162 pp.
Author: Susan M. Sheridan, Ph.D.
Publication Date: 1998
Publisher: Sopris West
Address/Phone No.: 4093 Specialty Place, Longmont, CO 80504. (303) 651-2829
Written for: Parents—and a good resource for teachers
Price: $18.50, paperback
ISBN: 1-57035-124-4
Topic: Social skills
Age Range: 7 to 13
Summary: Although written for parents, teachers will also find this book a valuable resource for teaching, coaching, and modeling problem-solving skills to their children to enhance their development of social skills. The book contains reproducible pages, removable social skills cards, and scripted role-plays.

Title: *You Can't Say You Can't Play,* 134pp.
Author(s): Vivian Gussin Paley
Publication Date: 1993
Publisher: Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts, & London, England
Written For: Teachers
Price: $ 10.85
ISBN: 0-674-96590-6
Topic: Exclusion in the classroom
Summary: *You Can't Say You Can't Play* is a book that explores exclusionary practices by children in play situations. It takes place in Vivian Gussin Paley's kindergarten classroom where she has observed the act of excluding during play over and over each year. In her efforts to keep children from being rejected, she creates a story about being left out and feeling lonely and shares it with the children. Before making "You can't say you can't play" a rule, Mrs. Paley investigates the habit of rejection that the children have, she inquires about the fairness of the rule by talking to her students as well as older students, and then she makes the decision to make it a rule. All of the investigating she does is shared and discussed quite openly with the children in her class and all have the opportunity to respond. As she introduces "You can't say you can't play" to her students, her story unwinds to help the children better understand the importance of including everyone.

Development/Medical Issues

Title: *Caring for Your School-Age Child: Ages 5 to 12,* 596 pp.
Author: Edward L. Schor, M.D., F.A.A.P., (Editor-in-Chief)
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: Bantam Books

Publisher Address: 1540 Broadway, New York, NY10036
Written for: Parents and teachers
Price: $ 17.95
ISBN: 0-553-37345-5
Topics: Children's health and well-being
Age Range: 5 to 12
Summary: Although this book is a resource and reference guide for parents, it would be beneficial to teachers of 5- to 12-year-old children. It consists of nine parts: Promoting Health and Normal Development, Nutrition and Physical Fitness, Personal and Social Development, Behavior and Discipline, Emotional Problems and Behavior Disorders, Family Matters, Children in School, Chronic Health Problems, and Common Medical Problems. Each part includes information about the general topic and specific information on important issues. It does not offer cures or solutions to problems, but it does suggest possible strategies. Resources for professional help are listed. Each section contains a quick reference box that identifies health issues of special importance and states the position of the American Academy of Pediatrics on those issues.

Title: *Developmental Continuity Across Preschool and Primary Grades: Implications for Teachers,* 93 pp.
Author(s): Nita H. Barbour and Carol Seefeldt
Publication Date: 1993
Publisher: Association For Childhood Education International
Address / Phone No.: 11501 Georgia Ave., Suite 315, Wheaton, MD 20902 301-942-2443, 800-423-3563
Written For: Teachers
Price: $ 15.00
ISBN: 0-87173-128-2
Topics: Designing early childhood curriculum to create a continuous flow of learning
Age Range: Pre-K through primary grades
Summary: This book is a tool for teachers to use to develop an action plan to put the principles of developmental continuity to work in their classrooms. It contains six chapters, each one building on the other to help the teacher understand the importance of developmental continuity and the steps to take to bring about change in their classrooms. The chapters discuss the meaning of developmental continuity and its history, ideas for implementing the process of change, organizational changes necessary to facilitate developmental continuity, creating curriculum, understanding the environment of continuity, and authentic assessment and evaluation. A bibliography and categorized reference list is provided for further investigation into the many components of developmental continuity.

Title: *Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Childhood Programs-Revised Edition,* 185 pp.
Author(s): Sue Bredekamp and Carol Copple, Editors
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: National Association for the Education of Young Children
Address/Phone Number: 1509 16th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036-1426 202/232-8777 or 800/424-2460
Written for: Teachers
Price: $ 8.00
ISBN: 0-935989-79-X
Topics: NAEYC Position Statement, The Early Childhood Teacher as Decision maker, Developmentally Appropriate Practice for Infants and Toddlers through 6 to 8 year olds in the Primary Grades, Examples of appropriate and inappropriate practices for each of the groups
Age Range: Birth through Age 8
Summary: Part 1 describes the NAEYC Position Statement: Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Childhood Programs Serving Children from Birth through Age 8. The position statement provides a look at the current practices of early childhood programs, a rationale for the position, principles of child development and learning, and guidelines for decisions about developmentally appropriate practices. Part 2 discusses NAEYC's definition of developmentally appropriate practice. It emphasizes the importance of knowledge about child development and learning, individuality of children, and how the social and cultural context should be considered when making decisions regarding the child's learning and development. Resolving contradictions that may arise because of individual needs is also addressed. Part 3 provides guidelines for developmentally appropriate practice for infants and toddlers. It describes the general expectations of the child at certain periods of development, the appropriate responses of the caregiver, and how families and caregivers work together to support the child's development. Part 4 provides information and guidelines to assist teachers of 3- through 5-year-olds in the following areas: physical development, language and communication development, cognitive development, social and emotional development, and how to handle transitions. Part 5 addresses the same topics for 6- through 8-year-olds. Parts 3, 4, and 5 all include examples of appropriate and inappropriate practices for each of the age groups. All of the parts provide extensive references and resources for further reading.

Title: *Yardsticks: Children in the Classroom Ages 4-14; A Resource for Parents and Teachers,* 204 pp.
Author(s): Chip Wood
Publication Date: June 1997
Publisher: Northeast Foundation for Children
Address/Phone No.: 71 Montague City Rd., Greenfield, MA 01301 1-800-360-6332
Written For: Parents & Teachers
Price: $ 14.95

ISBN: 0-9618636-4-1
Topics: Children 4 to 14: Developmental issues and Considerations
Summary: *Yardsticks* is a resource written for parents and teachers. It provides information on developmental issues that affect all children from age 4 to age 14. Specific issues discussed are: mixed-age grouping, racial and cultural considerations, ability grouping, retention, food, exercise, the school day, and curriculum. The book then provides information on major developmental considerations, which are the "milestones" for each age. Each "Yardstick" contains a narrative description, information on growth patterns, classroom implications, and appropriate curriculum. References, favorite books for different ages, and books for parents and teachers are also included.

Learning/ School Resources

Title: *Emergent Curriculum,* 148 pp.
Author(s): Elizabeth Jones & John Nimmo
Publication Date: 1994
Publisher: National Association for the Education of Young Children
Address/Phone Number: 1509 16th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036-1426 202/232-877 800/424-2460
Written For: Preschool / Kindergarten Teachers
Price: $ 6.00
ISBN: 0-935989-62-5
Topics: Developing curriculum that draws on the children's interests
Age Range: 2- to 5-year olds, but can be adapted for older students
Summary: *Emergent Curriculum* is a book that describes a year of learning at a childcare center. It is written in narrative form and follows the conversations, meetings, and thoughts of the childcare director and staff. The authors of the book are observers watching the growth of curriculum for 2- to 5-year olds as led by the center director. Ideas are generated through looking at the interests teachers and children and brainstorming and "webbing". Webbing refers to taking the ideas generated by brainstorming, and seeing how they connect and where they can go from there. The whole purpose is to identify concepts to introduce to the children. The children develop their own curriculum based on their interests in the concepts. The teachers each started with an idea, and allowed the children to lead or direct their learning. Ideas and concepts can be built upon, bridged to another idea, or they can simply be placed aside until the children are ready for them. Monthly meetings are held to identify what was good, and focus on planning for the next month. Throughout the year, the teachers constantly evaluate and modify their ideas to follow the flow of how the children are learning. This book contains many good ideas on how to help the curriculum emerge from how the children learn. It provides a look into how teachers collaborate and brainstorm ideas together to create environments for play and learning. The book ends with the center's director and staff synthesizing what went on throughout the year and asking themselves what was learned?, what was important?, and what emerged? The book

includes extensive notes from the book, resources for webbing information, and resources for teachers-as-researchers.

Title: *A Good Kindergarten for Your Child* (NAEYC order #524); *A Good Primary School for Your Child* (NAEYC order #579)
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: National Association for the Education of Young Children
Address/Phone No.: 1509 16th Street, NW, Washington, D.C. 20036-1426.
(202) 232-8777 or (800) 424-2460
Written for: Parents
Price: Single copies 50¢ each; 100 copies for $10
Topics: Guidelines for good kindergarten and primary schools
Summary: Both brochures outline the attributes of a good school. The authors explain how a good school helps children to learn and how intellectual development, social and emotional development, physical development, and language development support children's learning. The brochures contain information on curriculum and the reasons for providing children with opportunities to connect their skills and knowledge between subject areas.

Title: *High/Scope K- 3 Curriculum Series: Language & Literacy,* 237 pp.
Author(s): Jane M. Maehr
Publication Date: 1991
Publisher: The High/Scope Press
Address / Phone No.: 600 North River Street, Ypsilanti, Michigan 48198 313/485-2000
Written For: K - 3 teachers
Price: $ 22.95
ISBN: 0-929816-23-4
Topics: Literacy development
Summary: This curriculum guide defines the essential characteristics of High/Scope K - 3 classrooms. The first part of the guide is devoted to looking at the history of learning to read and write and offers new approaches to language and literacy development. Information on designing a classroom environment, which offers ample opportunities for children to actively engage in learning activities, is provided as well as guidelines for selecting materials. Part 2 highlights the milestones that children should encounter on their journey through language and literacy development. The milestones, called "key experiences," are divided into the categories of speaking and listening, writing, and reading. The guide provides examples of activities designed for each category and notes possible outcomes from engaging in the activity. The last chapter of the book discusses methods of assessment. A bibliography and 3-part appendix provide resources for teachers such as books and journal articles, children's literature, computer software, and reading and writing checklists and inventories.

Title: *Learning Opportunities beyond the School,* 2nd ed., 93 pp.
Authors: Barbara Hatcher and Shirley S. Beck, Editors
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: Association for Childhood Education International
Address/Phone No.: 17904 Georgia Avenue, Suite 215, Olney, MD 20832. (301) 570-2111 or (800) 423-3563.
Written for: Parents and teachers
ISBN: 0-87173-138-X
Topic: Extending learning into the community
Age Range: All
Summary: Designed for parents and teachers who realize the importance of a holistic approach to learning, the book presents a variety of ideas on how to integrate formal and informal learning in: *places*, such as libraries, museums, and zoos; *arenas*, such as ecology, service, and community; and *resources*, such as the family or the technological environment. Most sections also offer activities and tips on how to make the most of the informal learning environment. Each section ends with a list of references and resources.

Title: *Models of Early Childhood Education, 257pp.*
Author(s): Ann S. Epstein, Lawrence J. Schweinhart, Leslie McAdoo
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: High/Scope Press
Address / Phone No.: High/Scope Educational Research Foundation, 600 North River Street, Ypsilanti, Michigan 48198-2898 313/485-2000
Written For: Early Childhood Teachers
Price: $ 25.95
ISBN: 0-929816-95-1
Topics: Comparison of 6 Models of Early Childhood Education
Age range: 0 through 8
Summary: This book compares 6 popular curriculum-based early education models: the Montessori method, the Bank Street Developmental-Interaction approach, the High/Scope Curriculum, the Kamii-DeVries constructivist perspective, Teaching Strategies' Creative Curriculum, and the Direct Instruction model. This is a resource for teachers, students, directors, and administrators who are looking to implement a quality curriculum program for their students. The models were compared through a variety of categories including curriculum issues, training issues, and dissemination issues. The six models were chosen because of their recognition in the field and the availability of information.

Title: *On Their Side: Helping Children Take Charge of Their Learning,* 141 pp.
Author(s): Bob Strachota
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: Northeast Foundation for Children

Address / Phone No.: 71 Montague City Road, Greenfield, MA 01301 800-360-6332
Written for: Teachers
Price: $ 12.95
ISBN: 0-9618636-3-3
Topics: Understanding children and ways to use problem solving in the learning process.
Age Range: All
Summary: Every teacher someday will reach the point where he or she question what and how they have been teaching. Many will ask the question: "How can I make it more meaningful?" On Their Side is a book that may be the direction that they are looking for. It is written by a teacher who asked himself the same question and started searching for answers. The book details the feelings and reactions about teaching that typically surface when teachers are faced with the many challenges of their day. It then provides a rationale and plenty of stories as examples of how trying to understand children and why they do the things they do can lead to children taking charge of their learning through discussion and problem solving. Using the practices outlined throughout the book results in children learning to take responsibility for their own learning and for their actions. The book concludes with a categorized bibliography of books and articles and a list of references for further investigation.

Title: *Self-Determination Across the Life Span: Independence and Choice for People with Disabilities,* 353 pp.
Author(s): Deanna J. Sands and Michael L. Wehmeyer
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co.
Address / Phone No.: P.O. Box 10624, Baltimore, Maryland 21285-0624 800-638-3775
Written For: Teachers and Parents
Price: $ 35.00
ISBN: 1-55766-238-X
Topics: Self-Determination skills as an educational outcome
Age Range: all
Summary: This is a resource that provides an extensive overview of self-determination and suggestions for promoting self-determination in school as well as at home. The contributors of the book include people with disabilities, parents of children with disabilities, and professionals in the field. This mix of perspectives on the importance of self-determination throughout life offers valuable information, strategies, and encouragement for those seeking to promote self-determination.

Title: *Teaching Self-Determination to Students with Disabilities: Basic Skills for Successful Transition,* 354 pp.
Author(s): Michael L. Wehmeyer, Martin Agran, and Carolyn Hughes
Publication Date: 1998
Publisher: Paul H. Brookes Publishing Co., Inc.

Address / Phone No.: P.O. Box 10624, Baltimore, MD 21285-0624 800-638-3775
Written For: Teachers
Price: $ 34.95
ISBN: 1-55766-302-5
Topics: Self-Determination skills
Age Range: All
Summary: This is a book that provides strategies for teaching self-determination skills to students with developmental disabilities. It contains six sections that outline the fundamental characteristics of self-determination as an educational outcome. Four sections are devoted to the essential characteristics of self-determined people: autonomous behavior, self-regulated behavior, psychological empowerment, and self-realization. This book contains strategies which are applicable to children of all ages.

Title: *Teaching Self-Management to Elementary Students with Developmental Disabilities, 53pp.*
Author(s): Margaret E. King-Sears & Stephanie L. Carpenter
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: American Association on Mental Retardation
Address/Phone No.: 444 North Capitol Street, NW, Suite 846, Washington, DC 20001-1512
Written for: Teachers
Price: $ 19.95
ISBN: 0-940898-48-9
Topics: Self-Monitoring, Self-Evaluation, & Self-Reinforcement
Age Range: Elementary
Summary: This is a great resource for teachers to implement self-management strategies for students in their classrooms. The authors have developed a set of Instructional Principles to guide the teacher through the process of teaching self-management. The design implementation of self-management is divided into 4 phases: Select Behavior for Self-Management, Prepare to Teach Self-Management, Teach the Student to Use Self-Management, and Evaluate Student's Performance. It explains the process of teaching self-management step by step and provides examples of self-monitoring, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement forms. There are tables which highlight important principles and strategies as well as classroom scenarios modeling the different self-management components. For additional information, the authors have provided a bibliography of research in self-management.

Title: *Self-Directed Behavior: Self-Modification for Personal Adjustment,* 352 pp.
Author(s): David L. Watson and Roland G. Tharp
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company
Address/ Phone No.: 511 Forest Lodge Road, Pacific Grove, CA 93950

Written For: Parents and Teachers
Price: $ 32.95
ISBN: 0-534-34481-X
Topics: Self-modification
Age Range: All
Summary: This is one book that although not specifically written for early childhood audiences, has the vital skills and techniques necessary to learn important self-determination skills. Development of these skills early in life leads to more self-determined individuals with more control over their life. This book takes you step by step as you learn about goal-setting, observation and recording, antecedents, behavior, and consequences, how to develop a successful plan, and problem solving strategies. Ten chapters cover these areas. Each chapter begins with an outline and learner objectives and ends with a chapter summary, tips for typical topics, and individual steps to support you through your own self-determination project. As mentioned earlier, this book is not written for the early childhood audience, but the skills and techniques can be modified to fit individual needs for self-adjustment at any age.

Title: *The Special-Needs Reading List: An Annotated Guide to the Best Publications for Parents and Professionals,* 318 pp.
Author(s): Wilma K. Sweeney
Publication Date: 1998
Publisher: Woodbine House
Address / Phone No.: 6510 Bells Mill Rd., Bethesda, MD 20817 800-843-7323
Written For: Parents & Teachers
Price: $18.95
ISBN: 0-933149-74-3
Topics: Information resources on all disabilities
Age Range: All
Summary: This is an invaluable resource for parents and professionals searching for information on virtually any disability. The books and periodicals chosen for use in this guide are up-to-date, accurate, and written in clear, understandable language. The book is divided into 2 sections: Part 1: All Disabilities, and Part 2: Specific Disabilities. Part 1 provides reviews of books and publications on general subjects relating to disabilities. Some of these include: disability awareness, education, health care, and technology. Part 2 provides reviews of publications on specific disabilities from attention deficit disorders to visual impairments and blindness. Each section provides annotations of books, periodicals, web sites, and organizations. The sections are organized by specific topics such as basic information, education, parents, siblings, children, etc. The appendix contains publishers' addresses and phone numbers and the indices include organizations, authors, titles, and subjects.

Parenting

Title: *The Challenging Child: Understanding, Raising, and Enjoying the Five "Difficult" Types of Children,* 318 pp.
Author: Stanley I. Greenspan, M.D., with Jacqueline Salmon
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: Addison Wesley
Written for: Parents
Price: $13.00, paperback
ISBN: 0-201-44193-4
Topic: Parenting difficult children
Age Range: Birth to 8
Summary: This book for parents of children with challenging personality types outlines five difficult types of children: sensitive, self-absorbed, defiant, inattentive, and active/aggressive. Each personality trait is characterized and defined to help parents better understand their children. Dr. Greenspan offers information on types of parenting patterns to avoid and provides parents with steps to take to match parenting skills to their child's personality.

Title: *Involving Parents: A Handbook for Participation in Schools,* 227 pp.
Author(s): Peggy Lyons, Al Robbins, and Allen Smith
Publication Date: 1982
Publisher: The High/Scope Press
Address / Phone No.: 600 North River Street, Ypsilanti, Michigan 48197 (313) 485-2000
Written For: Teachers / Administrators
Price: $ 12.95
ISBN: 0-931114-19-5
Topics: Creating effective parent involvement in schools
Age Range: All
Summary: This handbook is the product of the "Study of Parental Involvement in Four Federal Education Programs" which was conducted by the System Development Corporation of Santa Monica, California, under contract with the U.S. Department of Education. The study examined the five functional areas of parental involvement: project governance, instruction, non-instructional support, community-school relations, and parent education. The handbook takes research into practice by describing the successful parental involvement practices found in the study and organizing them into steps to take in planning and implementing parental involvement activities. The handbook is organized into 3 different parts: How to Set Up Parental Involvement Activities, The Self-Assessment Manual, and a Resource Guide. Part 1 gives specific information on setting up parental involvement activities and identifying the different ways parents can become involved in their child's school. Part 2 is the Self-Assessment Manual, which helps to evaluate the current parental involvement to identify areas of concern that may

need improvement. It has several forms and checklists to guide you through the process in each of the 5 parental involvement areas. Part 3 is an extensive resource guide containing reading materials, forms and documents, and training and technical assistance service providers.

Title: *No Directions on the Package: Questions and Answers for Parents with Children from Birth to Age 12,* 215 pp.
Author: Barbara Kay Polland, Ph.D.
Publication Date: 2000
Publisher: Celestial Arts
Address: P.O. Box 7123, Berkeley, CA 94707
Written for: Parents
Price: $12.95, paperback
ISBN: 0-89087-976-1
Topic: Parenting strategies
Age Range: Birth to 12
Summary: A guide for parents of children up to 12 years of age, this book, in a question-and-answer format, addresses problems or questions that typically arise in early years. The book is divided into sections: establishing a daily routine; fostering mental development, self-esteem, autonomy, and social and emotional growth; family dynamics; and setting limits on behavior.

Title: *Parenting Young Children: Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) of Children under Six,* 138 pp.
Authors: Don Dinkmeyer, Sr.; Gary D. McKay; James S.; Don Dinkmeyer, Jr.; and Joyce L. McKay
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: American Guidance Service, Inc.
Address/Phone No.: Circle Pines, MN 55014-1796. (800) 328-2560
Written for: Parents
Price: $15.95, paperback
ISBN: 0-679-77797-0
Topic: Parenting strategies
Age Range: Birth to 5
Summary: This tool for parents takes a positive and democratic approach based on a program called STEP, Systematic Training for Effective Parenting. The seven chapters discuss behavior, self-esteem, communication, cooperation, discipline, and the social and emotional development of young children. At the end of each chapter is a suggestion for using the strategies. Important points are outlined, tips and ideas are presented on how to use the strategies with adults, and each chapter ends with a chart that summarizes the key points.

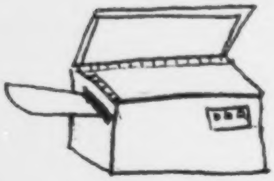
Title: *Raising a Thinking Child, Workbook,* 201 pp.
Author: Myrna B. Shure, Ph.D., with Teresa Foy Digernoimo, M.Ed.
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: Henry Holt & Co.
Address: 115 West 18th Street, New York, NY 10011
Written for: Parents
Price: $14.95
ISBN: 0-8050-4383-7
Age Range: 4 to 7
Summary: Designed to teach children to think about their actions and how they might affect other people, this workbook can be used as a companion to *Raising a Thinking Child* or it can be used independently. It contains activities that use the I-Can-Problem-Solve program to address many common parent-child and child-child problems. The workbook is sequential. Each section includes activities for the child, scripting and directions for parents, and activities for parents. The pages may be reproduced to accommodate multiple children in a family.

Title: *The Right Stuff for Children Birth to 8: Selecting Play Materials to Support Development,* 154 pp.
Author: Martha B. Bronson
Publication Dates: 1995, 1997
Publisher: National Association for the Education of Young Children
Address/Phone Number: 1509 16th Street, NW, Washington, D.C. 20036-1426.
(202) 232-8777 or (800) 424-2460
Written for: Parents and teachers
Price: $ 11.00
ISBN: 0-935989-72-2
Topic: Appropriate play and learning materials
Age Range: Birth to 8
Summary: Designed to identify the most beneficial play and learning materials for children, this handbook furnishes information to teachers, caregivers, directors, and principals. It is also useful to parents who wish to provide their children with appropriate play and learning materials at home. Chapters 2 through 7 are devoted to each developmental group: young infants, older infants, young toddlers, older toddlers, preschool and kindergarten children, and primary-school children. Each chapter focuses on the child's general abilities and play interests in the areas of motor skills, perceptual-cognitive abilities, and social-linguistic abilities. The book includes initial appropriateness considerations and suggestions. Categories of play and learning materials include: social and fantasy play; exploration and mastery play; music, art, and movement play; and gross-muscle motor play. Each chapter concludes with an overview of play materials, as

well as discussions of priorities and special considerations. A resource list and bibliography are available, along with a Guide to Play Materials by Type in chart form for easy reference.

Title: *The Special-Needs Reading List: An Annotated Guide to the Best Publications for Parents and Professionals,* 318 pp.
Author: Wilma K. Sweeney
Publication Date: 1998
Publisher: Woodbine House
Address/Phone No.: 6510 Bells Mill Road, Bethesda, MD 20817. (800) 843-7323
Written for: Parents and teachers
Price: $18.95
ISBN: 0-933149-74-3
Topics: Information resources on all disabilities
Age Range: All
Summary: This is a resource book for parents and professionals searching for information on virtually any disability. The books and periodicals chosen for use in this guide are up-to-date, accurate, and written in clear language. The book is divided into two sections. Part 1 provides reviews of books and publications on general subjects relating to disabilities, such as disability awareness, education, health care, and technology. Part 2 provides reviews of publications on specific disabilities, from attention deficit disorders to visual impairments and blindness. Each section provides annotations of books, periodicals, Web sites, and organizations. The sections are organized by topics, such as basic information, education, parents, siblings, children, etc. The appendix contains publishers' addresses and phone numbers. The indexes include organizations, authors, titles, and subjects.

Appendix C



Student Examples and Sample Forms to Copy

Model Examples:

Anna

Anna is five years old and getting special education services in a pre-kindergarten setting. Her goal about drawing symbols and writing names is described in the Chapters concerning the model.

Steve

Steve is eight years old and in the second grade. His story is in the Chapters of the model. Steve wants to learn to read better.

Dan

Dan is nine years old and in third grade. His goal to add and subtract using re-grouping is also described in the Chapters concerning the model.

Tom

Tom is eight years old in the second grade. His special education services are delivered in conjunction with his same age peers, except for the last period of the day that he spends in the resource room. Then, the special educator helps him work on any assignments, as well as working on some social skills with Tom. His disability is psychiatric in nature, but it impacts his learning and attentiveness, as well as social skills. Tom's teacher confided that she tried her best to have him concentrate on a learning goal, but his focus was clearly on sitting by his friend. Thus, she structured the model to meet this need, implementing some self-monitoring and behavior implications. As his general education teacher supported his goal, Tom was able to make particularly good progress toward learning. This example of a behavior-oriented goal is included to illustrate the flexibility of the model.

Harriet

Harriet is age nine and in the third grade. She decided to learn her math facts, but needed to keep her distractions at a minimum, especially as she tried to work at home. Harriet learned to change her environment in order to do better on her work. Harriet's teacher reported, "Her persistence has really paid off. Her confidence has soared!".

Anna

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

play with my dollhouse.

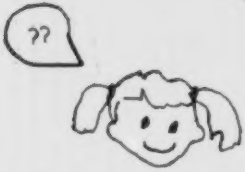
I like to go to Ms. B's class to work.

Do things in centers. Teacher center is the best.

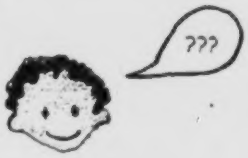
Spell names

Small group time to make things

Use my symbol beside my name.



What do I want to learn?



To write my name and my friend's names. *

Learn to read.

Learn to draw symbols. *

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

* selected by student.

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Anna

Phase 1, Set a Goal

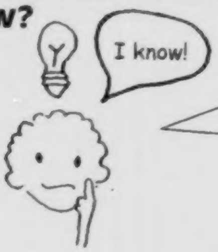
Name Anna Date March 25

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

Drawing symbols and writing names.

2. What do I know about it now?



I can draw Josie's ☺, my ✿, and Tracy's 💡

3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

I need to learn to draw better.

Me?
Something else?

4. What can I do to make this happen?

Learn to draw or write better by practicing.

End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

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Anna

Phase 2, Take Action

Name Anna

Date March 27

Problem to Solve: What is my plan?

5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?

Draw symbols for Josey, Steve, Nicole, David, Mimi, and me.

6. What could keep me from taking action?

Kids interrupt me. They erase my work. I talk instead of working.

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

Write it again.
Write it on paper.

8. When will I take action?

On Monday.

End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Anna

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name Anna Date April 30

Problem to Solve: What have I learned?

9. What actions have I taken?

I learned how to write.

10. What barriers have been removed?

I found a quiet place to work.

11. What has changed about what I don't know?

I started writing and it worked.

12. Do I know what I want to know?

I can draw everyone's symbol and some names.

Here's how I feel about what I did!

I feel happy. Now I can write because I work hard.

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Steve

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

Recess, PE

Write on chalkboard.

Playing on computer.

Math

I love numbers- adding and subtracting.

My resource room-playing on computer,

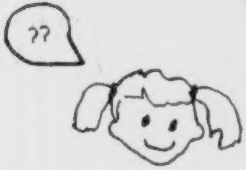
drawing.

Ride the 4-wheeler

Eat and cook (I'm learning to cook).

Play Nintendo 64

Ride in the truck with my dad.



What do I want to learn?

* Read better.

Learn to write sentences faster.

Learn multiplication.

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

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Steve

Phase 1, Set a Goal

Name Steve

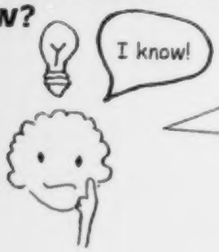
Date November 10

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

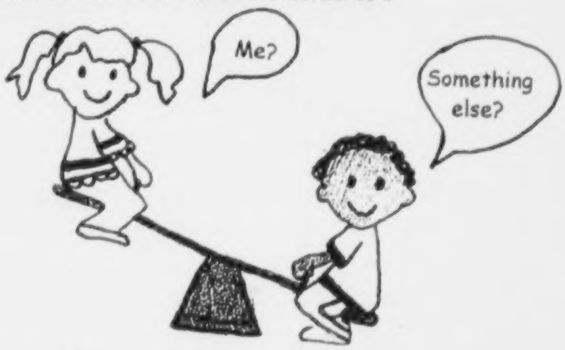
Read better.

2. What do I know about it now?



I know all the letter sounds, how to sound out words. I know a lot of sight words

3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?



I need to learn more sight words, more sounds. I need to practice more and read more books.

4. What can I do to make this happen?

Read a lot more books: one each week and learn two new words.

End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

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Steve

Phase 2, Take Action

Name Steve **Date** November 15

Problem to Solve: **What is my plan?**

5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?

I will read one new book each week, that is approved by my teacher.

6. What could keep me from taking action?

- Bad mood
- Sick
- Dr. appointment
- Watching too much tv

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

Stay well, be in a good mood. Watch my time - don't waste it.

8. When will I take action?

Tomorrow.

End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Steve

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name Steve.

Date February 18

Problem to Solve: What have I learned?

9. What actions have I taken?

I read one book every week and made a bookworm (with new words I learned).

10. What barriers have been removed?

I pay attention and my reading is better.

11. What has changed about what I don't know?

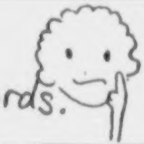
I know more words.

12. Do I know what I want to know?

I've read lots of books.

Here's how I feel about what I did!

I can read harder books!
I made a long bookworm of new words.



Dan

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

Ride my bike

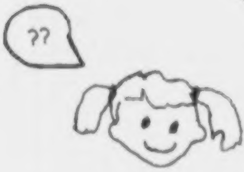
Do computer games at school.

Go to Joe's house.

Do math better.

Spell words right.

Play soccer.



What do I want to learn?

Spelling

Math *

Computers

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

Dan

Phase 1, Set a Goal

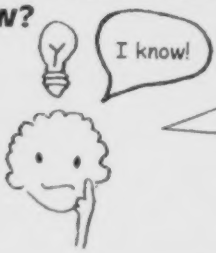
Name Dan **Date** January 6

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

Add and subtract using re-grouping.

2. What do I know about it now?



I know how to add and subtract without re-grouping.

3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

Me?
Something else?

I need to pay attention and be careful in math.

4. What can I do to make this happen?

- Listen to the teacher
- Do my classwork and homework.

End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

Dan

Phase 2, Take Action

Name Dan

Date January 8

Problem to Solve: What is my plan?

5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?

- Follow directions from teachers.
- Do my classwork and homework.

6. What could keep me from taking action?

- Not paying attention
- Looking around the room
- Not doing classwork or homework.

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

- Pay attention to the teacher.
- Remember my homework.
- work hard and don't talk in class

8. When will I take action?

Today!
Dan

End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Dan

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name Dan **Date** May 8

Problem to Solve: What have I learned?

9. What actions have I taken?

- I learned to add and subtract large numbers.
- Listen to the teacher.
- Look at Teacher, follow directions.

10. What barriers have been removed?

- playing
- Talking
- Not looking at math problems.

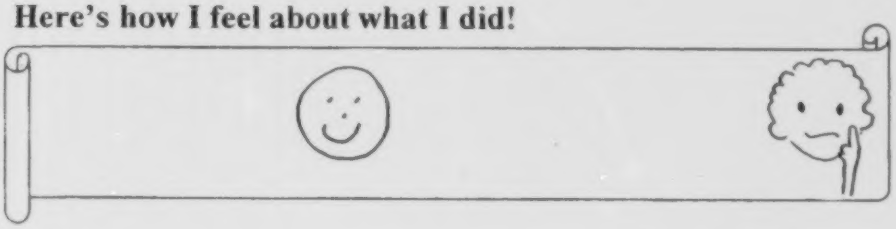
11. What has changed about what I don't know?

- I can add and subtract well.
- I know how to study at home.
- I do my homework.
- I passed my math test.

12. Do I know what I want to know?

Yes!

Here's how I feel about what I did!



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Tom

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

play with Jim

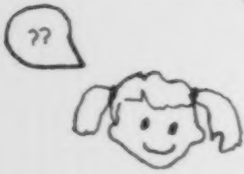
I like music class.

I like to draw pictures and make books.

Playstation Games

Watch television.

I like to have Jim come to my house.



What do I want to learn?

Stars in the sky

Where food comes from: watermelon, water, chicken, french fries.

Math *

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

Tom

Phase 1, Set a Goal

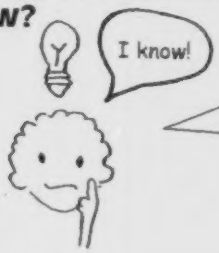
Name Tom **Date** February 4

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

I want to sit by my friend, Jim, in class. We want to play a game together.

2. What do I know about it now?



I don't get to sit by Jim because I don't pay attention to the teacher.

3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

I must listen to the teacher, answer questions, do my work, and talk nicely to people.

Me?
Something else?

4. What can I do to make this happen?

If I listen and follow the rules during math for one week then I can sit by Jim the next week.

End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

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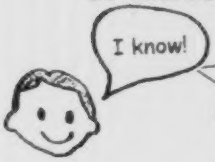
Tom

Phase 2, Take Action

Name Tom Date February 11

Problem to Solve: What is my plan?

5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?



Look at the teacher, answer questions, listen quietly, do my work, talk nicely to people.

6. What could keep me from taking action?

If I play with things in my desk, put my headdown, talk mean to people.

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

Put things away in my desk, look at the teacher.

8. When will I take action?

Tomorrow.

End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Tom

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name Tom **Date** February 16

***Problem to Solve*:** What have I learned?

9. What actions have I taken?

I was good and got all "yesses" in math. I colored my chart.

10. What barriers have been removed?

I do what the teacher says.

11. What has changed about what I don't know?

I get to sit by Jim or play games on Friday.

12. Do I know what I want to know?

If I can be good in math class and do my work, I can sit by Jim

Here's how I feel about what I did!

Yes, I don't get into trouble.

Harriet

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

Play

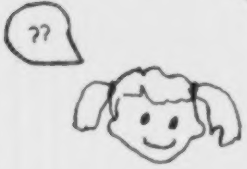
Learn soccer

Play "Teacher"

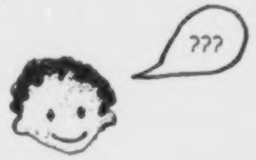
Piano

Television

Spend time with my family



What do I want to learn?



Soccer

Math Facts *

To write a story

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

Harriet

Phase 1, Set a Goal

Name Harriet **Date** October 20

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

I want to learn my "+ + -" math facts.

2. What do I know about it now?

I know how to add and subtract.

3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

. Stop watching so much television

Me?
Something else?

4. What can I do to make this happen?

Study and write down the math facts I know and how much time I study.

End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

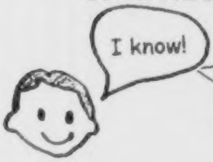
Harriet

Phase 2, Take Action

Name Harriet Date October 25

Problem to Solve: What is my plan?

5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?



Practice my math facts.

6. What could keep me from taking action?

My friends, the television, or my little brother.

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

Ignore friends, tv, and my brother and find a place to study that's quiet.

8. When will I take action?

When I get home from school Today.

End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Harriet

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name Harriet **Date** December 5

***Problem to Solve*:** **What have I learned?**

9. What actions have I taken?

I sat down and practiced.
I used flash cards.

10. What barriers have been removed?

I found a place and some time to study.

11. What has changed about what I don't know?

I know almost all of my math facts.

12. Do I know what I want to know?

Yes

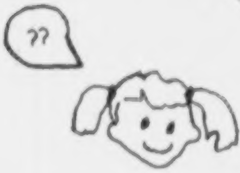
Here's how I feel about what I did!

I feel good!

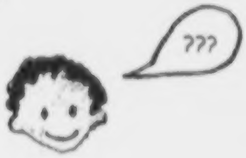
The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?



What do I want to learn?



Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

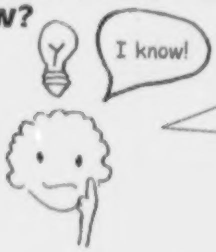
Phase 1, Set a Goal

Name ______________________ Date ________________

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

2. What do I know about it now?



3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

Me?
Something else?

4. What can I do to make this happen?

End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

Phase 2, Take Action

Name ______________________________ **Date** ____________________

Problem to Solve: What is my plan?

5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?

6. What could keep me from taking action?

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

8. When will I take action?

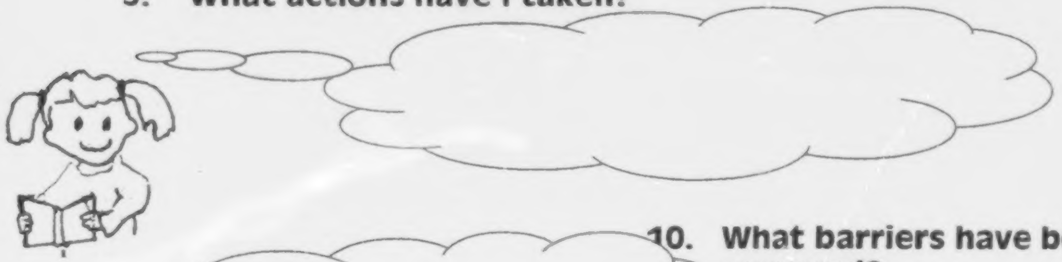
End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

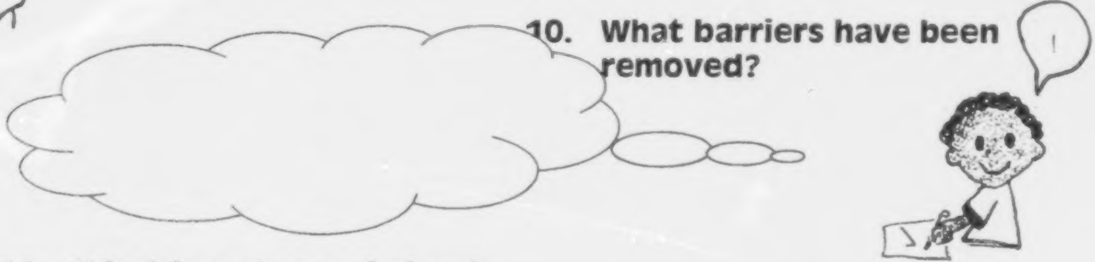
Name ______________________________ **Date** ____________________

Problem to Solve: What have I learned?

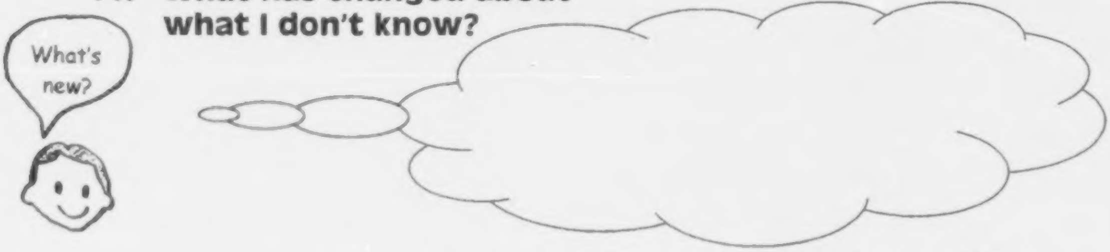
9. What actions have I taken?



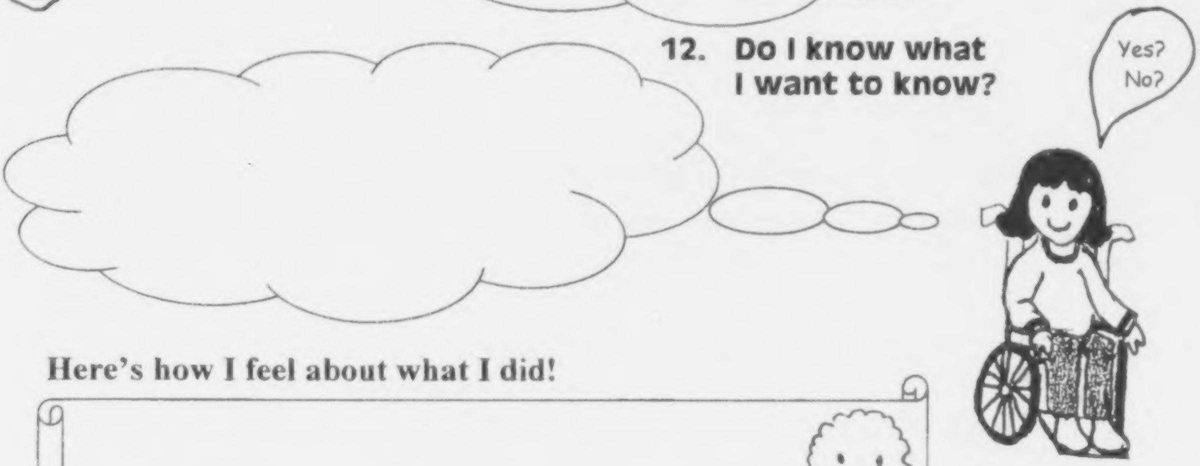
10. What barriers have been removed?



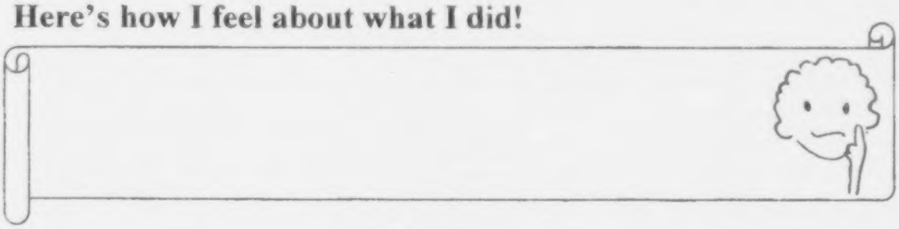
11. What has changed about what I don't know?



12. Do I know what I want to know?



Here's how I feel about what I did!



Who am I?

My first name is: ____________________ **My last name is:** ____________________

Parent name(s): ____

My brothers and sisters: ____

I live at: ______________________________ **in** ____________________________

in the state of ____

My telephone number is: ____

Things I like to do: ____

Here's what I say to tell people what I can do for myself: ____________________

____

____

____

Here's what I say to tell people what I may not be able to do alone: ____________

____

____

____

____

Rules and Extra Help:

At *school* I know the rules of my classroom. These are the ones that are really important: ____

____

____

____

At *home* I know the rules and expectations of my parents. These are the ones that are really important: ____________________

____

____

____

I need to ask questions *at school or home* when: ____________________

____

____

____

At *school*, I help these people (list of people and what I do for them):

____

____

____

At *school*, I can ask these people if I have a question or need something: __________

____

____

In my *neighborhood and at home*, I can help these people (names and what I do for them): ____________________

____

____

In *my neighborhood and at home*, I can ask these people if I have a question or need something: ____________________

____

____

Here's how I ask people to help me: ____________________

____

____

I need to remember to do this to communicate better: ____________________

____

____

If someone asks, here's how I explain about any disability I have: ____________________

____

____

____

Appendix C

Parent's Guide

Self-Determined Learning Model for Early Elementary Students

A Parent's Guide

Susan B. Palmer and Michael L. Wehmeyer

Beach Center on Disability
Schiefelbusch Institute for Lifespan Studies

The University of Kansas

IDEAs that Work
U.S. Office of Special Education Programs

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A Parent's Guide to the

Self-Determined Learning Model for Early Elementary Students

Susan B. Palmer and Michael L. Wehmeyer

Beach Center on Disability
Schiefelbusch Institute for Lifespan Studies

The University of Kansas

Illustrated by Sharon Falkner

IDEAs that Work
U.S. Office of Special Education Programs

The development of this product is supported by a grant funded by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) Model Demonstration Projects for Young Children with Disabilities – CFDA 84.024B. Opinions expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the position of the U.S. Department of Education.

IDEAs
that Work

U.S. Office of Special
Education Programs

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Preface

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary-Age Students was first used with teachers to teach problem solving and goal setting. Parents can also use this model to support learning in school, or to work on problems or goals in the home. The model enables teachers and parents to help children to begin the process to become self-determined. Young students can make choices about how to use their time and energy at school and at home. They can begin to understand problem solving and goal setting.

Children will work with adults to use the model. Children's ideas are valued and can be used with the questions in the model. Children's interests support their motivation. If we listen carefully to what children have to say, adults can structure supports for children's learning without taking total control. These interests of a child tend to support motivation to achieve goals.

Try using the sequence of questions presented in this guide for problem solving with your child. The questions can help you learn to support your child in making choices and decisions, and in setting goals for home and school.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to acknowledge the contributions of special people who made this work possible. Danna Yeager, former project associate, contributed to the review of reading suggestions for parents and children. In addition, she worked with teachers and young children on the initial field test of the early elementary model. We also want to thank the teachers in Texas and Kansas who participated in the Early Elementary research project. Other key contributors to this manuscript are printing consultant Sharon Falkner, who illustrated the manuscript, and Betty Baron, who edited it.

The authors also thank Sharon Davis, Betsy Santelli, Michelle Schwartz, and Debbie Wilkes, who provided assistance with previous drafts. The model was originally developed through the agreeable collaboration of the authors with Dr. Martin Agran, Dr. Dennis Mithaug, and Dr. James Martin in 1997, through the U.S. Department of Education, Grant HO23C40126 awarded to The Arc of the United States. Our thanks are extended to each of you.

This parent's guide is dedicated to

Betsy Santelli (1947-2002)

Betsy's work with families of children with disabilities through the Beach Center, Parent to Parent, and the Grassroots Consortium on Disabilities will continue to inspire us.

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Chapter 1

Introduction: Self-Determination

Self-determination provides support and opportunities for young people, with guidance from adults, to experience more control in their lives and learn to make decisions and solve problems. Children need support to learn and do things that will help them later in life. Self-determination provides a way to realize abilities for all individuals, not only those with disabilities. Although children with disabilities may need extra help to build on their strengths and understand their limitations, they can learn to be self-determined as adolescents and adults.

For young children, self-determination relates to interests, choices, decisions, and problems to be solved, usually with help from adults. Much of this Parent's Guide is based on the work of Wehmeyer (1992, 1996), who defines self-determination as an educational outcome. As adults, we should be able to manage our lives within our family and community units. Others may influence us to some degree but not more than necessary. Wehmeyer identified four characteristics that describe self-determined actions or activities for adolescents and adults:

1) Making choices and decisions, as needed (acting autonomously);
2) Having some personal control over actions (behavior is self-regulated);
3) Feeling and acting capable (initiating and responding to events in a psychologically empowered manner); and
4) Understanding the effects of actions (acting in a self-realizing manner).

A child may begin to display some of these characteristics in his or her behavior, but not to the extent that an adolescent or adult would. We should not expect young children to be fully self-determined.

Wehmeyer (1996) identified the following developmental components that support behavior that is autonomous, self-regulated, psychologically empowered, and self-realizing:

- Choice making
- Decision making
- Problem solving, self-observation, self-evaluation, and reinforcement (being self-regulated)
- Self-instruction
- Positive beliefs that one is effective and can expect certain outcomes
- Self-awareness and self-knowledge (knowing what you do well and what you need help to do)
- Self-advocacy skills (speaking up for oneself).

Some components are evident early. For example, choice making can occur as early as in infancy. Other components, such as goal setting and attainment will be appropriate in the elementary years. These components of self-determination promote self-determination and independence in any activities that individuals and their family think are important.

Self-determination for Young Children

Parents can help children begin the journey toward self-determination early in life, even before formal schooling. Self-determination is a developmental process that families, teachers, and therapists can continue to promote in the earliest elementary grades, so that as children grow, they can do more things on their own. Children begin this process through experiences in many settings and by learning and doing many different things.

Many parents know that young children can make choices early in their lives and, if they are given assistance and opportunities, express interests related to activities, people, and daily living. Children begin to express choices, first in pointing to objects and then in naming them. Young children begin to differentiate between self and others at about 15 to 18 months, becoming increasingly more self-aware.

Although children with special needs develop in much the same way that other children do, their development may be delayed or different, and could be supported with technology or other adaptations. Regardless of their individual developmental paths, all children can learn to make choices and decisions, and to solve problems. When children begin to set goals, the goals often relate to finding information about something. Boys and girls talk about what they want to be when they grow up. Young children include future plans in their play but do not necessarily connect the plans with current activities. In early elementary grades, children (with support from teachers and parents) can set short-term goals to learn to use self-management, self-evaluation, and other skills that promote later self-determination. The Self-Determined Learning Model is based on principles of child development and can be helpful in starting the process.

The Development of Self-Determination

The home, school, and community provide support for children to become self-determined.

Parents and others influence the development of self-determination through these actions:

- Supporting high expectations for children's activities that promote self-determined behavior,
- Encouraging independent function and development of abilities, and
- Promoting interaction with others.

Individuals who spend time with children with disabilities can support and encourage them. People on the educational or support team can collaborate to promote self-sufficiency and self-determination in children. Teachers and parents can encourage children to consider alternatives, make choices, increase social interaction, and support the process of learning through play. Young children can enjoy free play for fun as well as for learning. Play includes play with toys or things of interest around the house and social play with other people.

In elementary school, young students should attend their Individualized Educational Planning (IEP) meetings. They can begin to be part of the meetings that draft their educational plans. Older students will have more involvement in their IEPs and learn to lead these meetings. Parents, educators, and students need to be involved in team discussions, as much as possible. Students will understand their own strengths and needs, as well as the purpose and content of the special education instruction. *Furthermore, in addition to helping with their annual planning meetings, students in elementary and secondary classes should work on day-to-day self-directed plans.* The Self-Determined Learning Model provides a way to include self-direction that is supported by adults, enabling students to learn.

Using physical and social environments in the following ways, the home, school, and community provide opportunities for children to learn:

- Activities to help children learn can occur regularly and be directed by children's interests,
- Different materials can be made available to stimulate child learning, and
- Regular feedback can be provided to children about their learning.

Rules and limits for both home and school behaviors help young people manage their own behavior, learn self-regulation, and become a valued part of our society. Of course, children *do need limits* placed on territory and behavior. Within workable limits, the physical and psychological environments can support independent functioning, both at home and in school. Parents and guardians facilitate community experiences for their families. Many community activities for young children occur with parents and other family members:

- Family trips to the library, where children can choose books or educational videos,
- Story time for young children and their parent to support learning,
- Religious services that provide peer contact, as well as family support for the child with disabilities,
- Activity or play groups provide opportunities for a small group of children to play with toys, make choices about food for snacks, and learn to get along with others, and
- Childcare, preschool, or possibly Head Start can provide both consistent care and learning opportunities.

(Note: Think about whether a child who is significantly delayed can manage to be away from a parent for a length of time and still enjoy the activity if it is in an unfamiliar place or has a new person leading it. Depending on their level of comfort, social emotional development, and need for independence many young children still need a consistent caregiver with them to benefit from activities outside the home.)

Learning, Family Beliefs and Self-Determination

Take a few minutes to consider how children learn. Usually, children learn best by being as active as possible.

Here are some ways to support children's learning:

- Children learn about the world and how to get along with others, so practicing through play can help
- Learning while being safe and valued, both at home and in the community helps children develop new ideas and interests
- Feeling secure that someone is paying attention to them and keeping them safe from harm provides children with a secure learning environment
- Having meaningful choices to make helps children to learn to consider alternatives
- Exploring choices by being actively involved is helpful in children's learning
- Learning from parents and teachers about the outside world helps children to learn in a rich, detailed context.

When you are considering educational settings for your children, look carefully at the philosophy of a program before enrolling. To promote active involvement in learning, choice should be encouraged in classrooms of young children. Teachers can control the behavior of their classes but also provide autonomy for children to experience learning actively. Young people also can make some decisions about what they want to do or learn in order to experience some self-direction. When teachers strategically help children with a variety of situations, they are promoting learning and development. By offering opportunities to practice and expand newly acquired skills, teachers actively encourage further learning and future self-determination. You, as a parent, can do the same things at home.

Being self-determined means that adolescents or adults, supported by their families or cultural beliefs, can make choices and decisions about what is important to them. Self-determined activities are not automatically associated with becoming 18 or 21 years old, however. We must provide opportunities for practice of the developmental components of self-determination over the years that children are in elementary and secondary schools, as well as during their early years. It is also important for young people with disabilities to be able to speak up for themselves at school or work, as needed, and to be safe, secure, and reasonably happy.

Finding the balance between making every choice and decision for oneself, and allowing others to make these choices is something each person must decide. For example, many adults drive a car but choose not to learn about car repair; they find someone to do the repairs for them. Also, adults with disabilities choose where they live. Some choose to live independently, with support from family, friends, and service providers. Others choose not to live independently. What is important is that adults with disabilities have that choice. For young children, choices may be smaller in scope, such as what food to eat or clothes to wear. These choices, however, are equally important in supporting the process of becoming self-determined.

Depending upon their personal and cultural beliefs, financial resources, and ability to support unique circumstances, families have their own values related to self-determination, and they decide the level of independence for their own members. For example, young children in some family groups may not be encouraged to make their own choices during preschool years; parents in their culture usually make choices for them. However, when children with disabilities reach school age, some flexibility should be possible, as these children will be encouraged to learn to choose among alternatives at school. Young children in other families may have more choices at home than they will in school. Parents can talk with teachers to clarify the family's values and those of their culture related to self-determination and independence.

Children in the elementary grades can begin to learn and use goal setting and decision making, problem-solving strategies, and choice-making skills. These abilities help them to begin to become responsible for their own actions and abilities. Of course, when children are younger, they will not be able to do this alone, but they can start to learn some of the process. If you wish to read more about self-determination, see Appendix C.

The Self-Determined Learning Model provides a means to work on individual, age-appropriate goals within the settings of home and school. Parents can use the model with children at home, or teachers and students can use the model for student goals that are helpful both at school and at home. Parents support their children in some of the same ways that teachers do. A mother or father might help a child learn to clean his or her room or to set limits on behavior. These guidelines and limits help children learn to become more in control of their behavior. The Self-Determined Learning Model is used to teach students to direct their own learning through goal setting and problem solving.

Chapter 2

Using the Self-Determined Learning Model

Parents can use the Self-Determined Learning Model to support learning in school, or to work on problems or goals related to the home. Although the model was originally developed for teachers to teach students problem solving and goal setting, parents can easily use it at home or in the community. Young students make choices in spending their time and energy at school as well as at home and can begin to solve problems and set goals. You can work with your child to use the model by valuing your child's interests and by setting necessary limits to help with goals. Children's interests motivate them to achieve goals. By listening carefully to what children have to say, you can structure supports for learning, without taking total control.

Using the Self-Determined Learning Model with Sandy and Joe: Sandy was already using the Self-Determined Learning Model at school to learn more about reading. Her teacher, Mr. Smith, suggested that Sandy and her mother might like to use it at home, too. Joe wanted to do a project at home. His parents thought this might be a good time to use the model framework that Mr. Jones, Joe's teacher, sent home. Sandy and Joe will provide consistent examples for using the model in problem solving and goal setting. Sandy and Joe's examples are included in this chapter. The goals and ideas for achieving them are in the Student Pages of the model.

The Self-Determined Learning Model includes 12 questions arranged in three phases: Setting a Goal, Taking Action, and Adjusting the Goal or Plan. First, it is important to talk about what interests, goals, and problems are, in relation to the Self-Determined Learning Model. Later in this chapter, you will read much more about the model.

Self-Directed Learning Pre-model Activities

Activity One, What Are Interests? Interests motivate behavior. The Self-Determined Learning Model is built on the principles of child-directed learning involving children's interests, which motivate child behavior. So the suggestions for what children wish to do or learn provide the basis for setting a goal within the model. Talk with your children about things they like to do, and help them understand that they may like the same things as other children do, or they may like very different things.

Sandy's and Joe's Interest pages may help you understand the process. Sandy's goal is on pp. 8-11 and Joe's goal is on pp. 13-16. These are described in *vignettes* throughout the chapter. A blank "Exploring My Interests" page of the Learning Model is in Appendix C. You may copy this to use. Encourage your child to fill in words or draw pictures related to his or her interests at home and at school, on the top part of the page. You can help your children write this or let them do it, but first, talk about it together.

Sandy

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

watch television

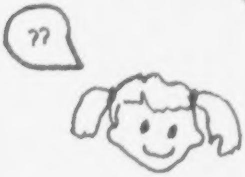
Visit Grandma

Play with Jessica

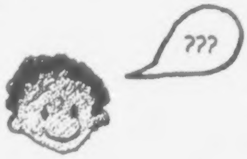
Work on the computer

Learn to read

Go to the movies



What do I want to learn?



How to make bracelets with beads

Reading words

Computer games

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

Sandy

Phase 1, Set a Goal

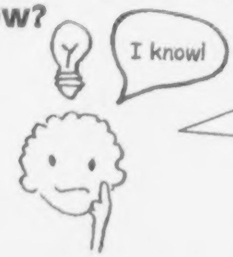
Name Sandy **Date** October 3

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

How to read more words.

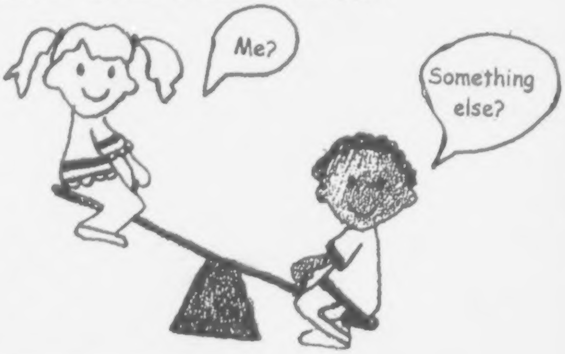
2. What do I know about it now?



I know 5 words on our big list.

3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

I have to work harder. I have to wait to watch television until I study.



4. What can I do to make this happen?

I can start to study if the teacher sends the words. My mom can help me to learn 30 words.

End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

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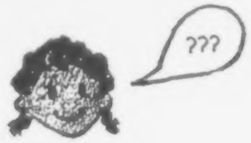
Sandy

Phase 2, Take Action

Name Sandy **Date** October 4

Problem to Solve: **What is my plan?**



5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?

Practice writing words and saying them.

6. What could keep me from taking action?

① Watching too much television.
② Not paying attention.

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

I can remember to study words when I come in for dinner. I can keep a record of my study time on the calendar.

8. When will I take action?

On Monday, after Mr. Smith sends the words home.

End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Sandy

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name Sandy **Date** November 2

***Problem to Solve*: What have I learned?**

9. What actions have I taken?

I wrote my words 10 times each day. I said them a lot.

10. What barriers have been removed?

I remember to study every night before I watch Television.

11. What has changed about what I don't know?

I know more words now. Instead of 5, I know more words on our word list.

12. Do I know what I want to know?

Yes!

Here's how I feel about what I did!

I like to learn things. It was fun!

Sandy has been doing some problem solving at school with her teacher about learning to read. Her teacher suggested that she might want to work at home with her mother or father, too. Sandy and her mother sat down together one Saturday morning and thought about the things that Sandy wanted to learn or do. Watching television, playing, learning to read, and working on computers were some of Sandy's interests. Sandy and her mother wrote the information on the "Exploring My Interests" page and decided to work on one part of the reading work at home. Sandy's Interests are on p. 8.

Joe and his parents sat down to talk about what he liked to do at home and at school. Joe likes riding his bike, building things, and visiting his friend, Josh. Joe's Interest Page follows on p.13.

Activity Two, What Is a Goal? At the bottom of the "Exploring My Interests" page, you and your child will be thinking about a goal as something you plan to do. The word *goal* in the model relates to something you want to learn or do. Another meaning for goal that occurs to young children is a score in soccer or football, but this is not what we're thinking of now. You can talk about goals that children might set, such as reading a short book at home for extra credit, planning a birthday party for someone special, or working on some skill for a sport or hobby.

The three boxes at the bottom of the "Exploring My Interests" page ask children to choose several things they want to work on (topics for goals). Take time to listen to your children's ideas to help them think about goals. Your children's interests will motivate them to work on their goal. You can make suggestions and set limits on the goal topics to make them more realistic and safe. You and your child can select three possible goal topics, putting one in each box at the bottom of the page.

Sandy and her mother talked about goals. At school, her teacher, Mr. Smith, had already talked about interests, problems, and goals with the class. After making sure that they both were thinking about ideas that related to the model, Sandy and her mother were able to complete the Interest page. Sandy told her mother, "Goals are scores, but they are also things that I want to do." The goals identified were making bracelets, reading words, and playing computer games.

Joe's goals were to build things, study math, and read better. His grandfather's birthday was soon, so Joe decided that he wanted to make a present for Grandpa. It became clear that Joe could combine all three goals ideas and have a gift for Grandpa.

Joe

Phase 1, Set a Goal

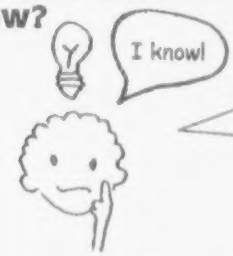
Name Joe **Date** January 8

Problem to Solve: **What is my goal?**

1. What do I want to learn?

I want to build something for grandpa's birthday.

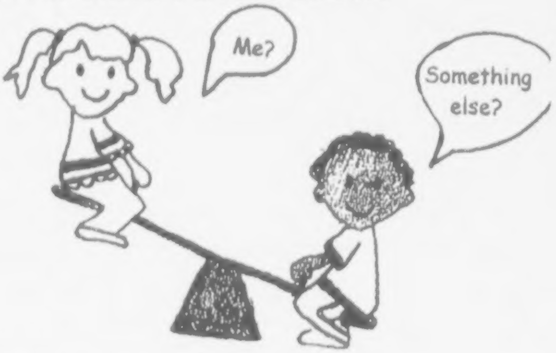
2. What do I know about it now?



I like hammering and sawing wood.

3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

I have to find a book about making things. And I need to do it soon.



4. What can I do to make this happen?

We can go to the library and read about it. Then Dad or Mom can take me to buy what we need.

End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

Joe

The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?

- Ride my bike
- Watch television
- Run races
- Build things
- Study math
- Go to Josh's house

What do I want to learn?

- Build Things *
- Study math *
- Read better *

Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

* Joe and his parents decided to combine reading, math, and building

Joe

Phase 2, Take Action

Name Joe **Date** January 12

Problem to Solve: **What is my plan?**

5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?

I can read about making a birdhouse in a book and follow directions with lots of help.

6. What could keep me from taking action?

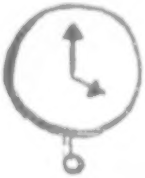
Not working hard enough. Not measuring very well. No money to buy things. No help.

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

I will ask Mom and Dad to help me when I need it. I will read and add my numbers carefully. I will save my allowance money.

8. When will I take action?

Let's start tomorrow after school.



End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Joe

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name Joe **Date** January 30

***Problem to Solve*: What have I learned?**

9. What actions have I taken?

I went to the library, found a plan for a birdhouse, and changed it some.

10. What barriers have been removed?

I got some help. I needed to read and I did that.

11. What has changed about what I don't know?

I know what to buy to make a birdhouse.

12. Do I know what I want to know?

Not yet! I still need to do the building, but I need some paint, too.

Here's how I feel about what I did!

I like it so far, but I need more money and more help.

Activity Three, What Is a Problem or Barrier? *Problems* are related to goals and the goal-setting process. *Barriers* block goal attainment. You can talk about problems and barriers by using some examples from everyday life. Encourage your child to think about problems, give examples of a problem, and decide what the word "problem" or "barrier" means. Read a story about problem solving to think about this. See Appendix A for a list of children's books about problem solving. Most of these books involve some goal-directed behavior to solve a problem or overcome a barrier. You might also wish to use some of the following suggestions to talk about the concept of problems:

- Explain that a problem is something that keeps people from getting what they want or need
- Use role playing to talk about the many ways to solve problems (for example, "If you need to get ready for school on time, what can you do?" or "I lost my sweatshirt somewhere. How can I find it again?")
- Talk about reasons why problems are not solved (for example, people may not want to think about them, it takes some time, they are difficult, or problems may appear to be too large to solve. . .)
- Discuss what barriers or difficulties are–(something that is in the way of a solution–I want to read Dr. Seuss's *Green Eggs and Ham*, but I don't know where I can get it)
- Remind children that problems aren't always bad things, but simply things that need work (i.e. Grandma is coming next week and I need to clean my room, or I need to work on learning to write my name the way I need to do it at school).

In order to solve problems, the gap between the current situation and the expected outcome must be closed. Barriers may get in the way while you are trying to achieve goals. One of the questions in each part of the model asks children to tell what is stopping them from achieving their goal or plan. You can explain the word "barrier" using the analogy of a highway roadblock that does not allow us to drive straight down the road. We may have to take a detour or work around our problems. Work with your children to find out what they think is a problem for them or a goal that they wish to set and achieve. Joe and Sandy's problems (and solutions) will appear later in this chapter.

Before you move to the next section take time to read this!

Younger children may need more explanation for the activities listed in this section of the guide than will older children. Take some time to ask your children what their interests are and what they like to do and learn. Listen carefully to what they tell you. This is a good chance to talk about what "goal" means and what a "problem" is. Be sure that you and your child are thinking and talking about similar meanings while you work on the Self-Determined Learning Model.

The Self-Determined Learning Model-An Overview

Now that your child understands the definitions of *interests*, *goals*, and *problems*, we can move on to the model. The Self-Determined Learning Model has three phases: Setting a Goal, Taking Action, and Adjusting the Goal or Plan. Each of the three parts or phases of the model has four questions. The questions represent a *problem solving sequence*: Question 1, "What do I want to learn?", Question 2, "What do I know about it now?", Question 3, "What must change for me to learn what I don't know?", and Question 4, "What can I do to make this happen?" These questions begin with a problem and move in sequence to having the child decide how he or she will solve the problem by setting a goal. This same sequence of problem solving is contained in *each* of the three phases of the model.

Child Questions are written in *child voice*, (i.e. "What do *I* like to do at school and at home?" and "What do *I* want to learn?"), to remind you that your child should be answering these questions (with adult assistance). This will help your child to have some voice in what he or she chooses to learn or do. Then later, when your child is familiar with the steps in the problem solving process, he or she can use these questions more independently (but still with adult guidance), while setting goals and solving problems in many different settings. To make sure that children understand, you may change the wording of these questions. You should keep the meaning the same, however, even if you must change some of the words. See Appendix C for a copy of the model questions that you can copy to use with your child.

The questions of the model are important, but they only outline the goal setting process, of course. The real activity begins by talking together. You and your child can decide what to do, think together about what needs to happen, agree when and what will take place, and discuss other details about goal setting and problem solving. Use the sequence of questions presented later in this chapter for goal setting and problem solving with your child. These questions can help you learn to support your child in making choices and decisions, and to set goals for home and school. Talk with your child, of course, to clarify the terms *interests*, *goals*, and *problems*.

Parent Suggestions are listed for parts of the model under each Child Question. These suggestions guide a parent to help children learn and use this process for problem solving. Of course, parents can generate ideas for supporting their children as they use the model. For example, in Phase One, Set a Goal, Question 1, "*What do I want to learn?*", you can help your child identify specific strengths and needs; talk about preferences, interests, and beliefs; or talk about what idea is the best for a goal.

The first time that children use the Self-Determined Learning Model to work on goals, it will take longer to complete the process. Take the time to talk with your child and work with him or her on the steps. Later, as the steps are more familiar, children will use them more naturally.

Children will follow the *Goal* they have set in Phase 1 of the model with a *Plan* in Phase 2. Phase 3 is an *Evaluation* of that plan or goal. In Phase 3, you and your child consider any changes in the situation and decide if the plan to achieve the goal is working. By working through the Child Questions and using Parent Suggestions, you and your child can begin to work together on goals and problems in a logical, effective way. This process takes into account your child's interests, abilities, strengths, weaknesses, and the context in which goals are set.

Phase 1, What is My Goal?

Using Phase 1 of the model, Sandy and her mother started by setting a specific goal. They looked at Sandy's "Exploring My Interests" first (p .8). Sandy's teacher sent some suggestions home for them to think about, too. When asked about what she would like to do or learn (Question 1, p. 9), Sandy said that she wanted to learn to read better. She knew only five sight words and wanted to learn more (Question 2). In order to do that she would need to work on them with her mother and try not to watch too much television, so she had time to study (Question 3). For Question 4, Sandy's mother wrote that Sandy wanted to learn to read 30 sight words.

You can explain to your child that you are using the model to learn new things, to set goals and make decisions at home or school, and to become better problem solvers. Remember first to use the Premodel Activities (on pp. 7, 12, and 17) with your children. Talk about interests, goals, and problems in general. Following your conversation about goals and problems, start Phase 1 by asking the first Child Question, "What do I want to learn?" Refer to the "Exploring My Interests" page and the three goal topics that your child has listed. Help him or her select one topic to answer the first Child Question. Discuss what Question 1 means and, if necessary, use other phrases such as "What do I want to be able to do?" or "What do I want to know more about?" Your child's answer will help you to reword the question and try again.

Joe's Exploring My Interest page (p. 13) was helpful in deciding on a goal. *Joe told his parents that he wanted to build something for his grandpa's birthday (Question 1). For Question 2, he said that he knew that he liked saws and hammers (What he knew about the project now). Joe and his parents looked at what he said he wanted to learn and noticed that math, reading, and building things were three possible goals that Joe had. The project could use each of those areas, so they could combine all three. Joe answered Question 3, What must change for me to learn what I don't know?, by saying that he had to find a book about making things. Question 4 (What can I do to make this happen?), was hard for Joe to think about on his own. He needed one of his parents to drive him to the library. They would start by getting a book from the library, reading it, and deciding what Joe needed to buy or collect to make his grandpa the birdhouse. (Joe's Phase 1 of the model is on p. 14.)*

When you talk about the questions of the model, listen carefully to the child: do not supply words. Ask open-ended questions that need more than a one- or two-word answer, and use effective listening techniques. *Effective listening* means restating answers that your child gives so that you can clarify meaning, and focus on your child in the conversation, rather than on what you will say next. After asking a question, you usually need to wait for your child to give an answer. Wait time could be 10 to 15 seconds of silence, to give your children time to gather their thoughts and use their own words. If they are unable to answer, reword the question, and wait again. Only then, should you suggest an answer- providing support for them to work on a goal, even if at first they can't independently answer the questions in the model. Children can learn about goal setting while they are doing it, with you as their supporter to explain things. As you work through all twelve of the Child Questions in the three phases of the model, *write down* the reworded version for the next time your child uses the model. This will provide you with a list of Child Questions to use each time.

It is important to work on a goal in which your child is interested. If your child (with your help) sets a goal that does not hold his or her interest over several weeks, then, if your child agrees, you can revise the goal-setting process to set another goal, with a shorter time limit. As you talk with your child, be sure to:

- *Keep* a limited focus for initial goals, so you and your child can work through the three phases of the model in a shorter period of time
- *Think about the purpose of the model-to set clear and achievable goals*
- *Remember the guidelines and limits that are part of your family's culture and rule system.* Although we want children to develop skills and abilities in order to have the capacity for self-determination, it is not necessary to forget about rules and behavior to help children learn problem solving and goal setting
- *Keep focused* on the subject that you (child and parent) wish to think about.

Sandy's and Joe's parents needed some help as they worked on the questions together with their children. They looked at the Parent Suggestions that appear in the charts after each phase of the model. As you and your child move through the Child Questions, keep in mind the Parent Suggestions. For example, in Child Question 1, the Parent Suggestions are:

- Help your child identify specific strengths and needs
- Help your child to talk about his or her preferences, interests and beliefs
- Talk with your child to decide which needs are most important.

Phase 1 has four Child Questions:

(1) *What do I want to learn?* or, *What do I want to do?* This question relates to interests and activities that have been identified already, especially through use of the Premodel Activities beginning on p. 7.

(2) *What do I know about it now?* Here you can help your child think about problems or opportunities in his or her situation. If your child does not name any of these, you can suggest a few things to think about.

(3) *What must change for me to learn what I don't know?* Question 3 asks your child to think about what has to change about either his or her environment or himself or herself.

(4) *What can I do to make this happen?* Question 4 asks the child to decide what he or she can do to make the desired action or activity happen. This puts the responsibility for goal achievement on the child (with whatever level of your support is needed to make that happen, of course).

By the end of Phase 1, a child will have clearly identified a goal or problem to solve by choosing among alternatives and thinking about barriers. He or she will be ready for Phase 2.

Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 1, Set a Goal *Problem for Child to Solve: What is my goal?*	
Child Question 1:	What do I want to learn? Or, What do I want to do?
	Parent Suggestions • Help child to identify specific strengths and needs • Help child to talk about his or her preferences, interests, and beliefs • Talk with child to decide which needs are most important.
Child Question 2:	What do I know about it now?
	Parent Suggestion • Help child gather information about opportunities and barriers in the environment.
Child Question 3:	What must change for me to learn what I don't know?
	Parent Suggestions • Help child to decide if he or she needs to think about or learn something new, change something in the environment, or both of these.
Child Question 4:	What can I do to make this happen?
	Parent Suggestions • Help child to choose a goal and think about how that will look when done.

Phase 2, What is My Plan?

The next day Sandy and her mother decided to think about the plan for working on reading at home. They talked about what Sandy could do to learn what she did not know, practice writing the words, and say them out loud (Question 5), and what might keep her from taking action (Question 6). Sandy decided that she needed to set up a schedule for learning her words and to practice every day (Question 7). She told her mother that she would start on Monday to learn her words, if the teacher could send them home for her (Question 8). Sandy's mother sent a note to Sandy's teacher, and Mr. Jones sent home a copy of the words. Sandy and her mother decided to put a sticker up for every day that Sandy remembered to study her words. If her mother had to remind her to do it, then they only put a check mark on the calendar to show that Sandy had studied the words. (Sandy's Phase 2 is on p. 10.)

Joe and his parents talked about his goal of making a bird house for his grandfather. For Question 5, Joe decided to read the book about building and follow the directions with help from his parents and others. He thought that if he did not work hard enough or measure things very well, he could have problems (Question 6). He also needed money to buy materials. When asked what he could do to remove the barriers to doing his project, Joe said that he would ask his mother and father for help, read and add his numbers carefully, as well as save money from his allowance (Question 7). For Question 8, he said that he wanted to start after school the next day. (See Joe's Phase 2 of the model on p. 15.)

Phase 2 has four Child Questions:

(5) *What can I do to learn what I don't know?* Question 5 includes the Parent Suggestion to help child to decide where he or she is now working on his or her goal or problem.

(6) *What could keep me from taking action?* Here a child is asked to identify what he or she can do to identify barriers. This could be either some within-person change or it could be a change in some context (or both).

(7) *What can I do to remove these barriers?* To work on Question 7, a child should ask, "What can I do to remove these barriers or problems?" with a parent helping to decide what a child can do to change things, if necessary.

(8) *When will I take action?* Parent Suggestions here refer to setting up a schedule, helping children work on self-monitoring, or thinking about their actions while doing them. See chapter 5 for suggestions on this.

At this point, you and your child will have decided when he or she will begin to work on the plan (Phase 2, Questions 5-8). After you and your child have worked on the plan in Phase 2 for a period of time, and some activity (not necessarily progress) has taken place toward goal attainment, you should discuss the questions in Phase 3.

Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 2, Take Action

Problem for child to solve: What is my plan?

Child Question 5: What can I do to learn what I don't know?

Parent Suggestion

- Help child to determine "where he or she is" in the work on the goal or problem.

Child Question 6: What could keep me from taking action?

Parent Suggestion

- Help child to determine plan of action to move from "where he or she is now" to "where he or she wants to be," in terms of their goal or solution to a problem.

Child Question 7: What can I do to remove these barriers? (things that stop me)?

Parent Suggestions

- Talk with child to decide what he or she can do to change things.
- Provide mutually agreed-upon parent-directed instruction.

Child Question 8: When will I take action?

Parent Suggestions

- Help child to decide schedule for action plan.
- Enable child to work on action plan.
- Help child learn how to self-monitor progress.

Phase 3, What Have I Learned?

After two weeks, Sandy told her mother that she knew the words, so they talked about the last phase of the goal-setting model. Sandy told her mother what she had done to learn the words (Question 9), and what things had changed (Question 10). Sandy's mother wrote them down so that they could look at them if necessary. Sandy showed her mother that she could read all the words that the teacher had sent home (Question 11) and told her mother that she knew what she needed to know (Question 12). Then Sandy thought that she would like to set a new learning goal, because this helped her think about what she needed to learn and how to do it. Sandy told her mother that she liked to learn some things at home, too. Sandy said, "It was fun!" (See p. 11.)

Sometimes Sandy and Joe would forget about their goals for a few days. Sandy's mother reminded her and finally moved the chart to a place near the back door where Sandy hung her backpack when she came home from school. That seemed to help. Every few days Joe and his parents would talk about what Joe was doing on his goal. Usually younger children need to talk about their goal and be reminded more than older children do.

In Phase 3 children get a chance to do self-evaluation of a goal, an important part of the learning process. This part of the model is often left to chance, or adults simply tell children how they did, without asking children what they think. Phase 3 helps children with the process of self-evaluation and self-awareness. These parts of self-determination are often overlooked in teaching as well as in parenting, because we often tell our children what is wrong, instead of asking them to help us figure it out. Learning to think about how we are doing and becoming more self-aware will help us to become more independent learners.

Child Questions in Phase 3 include:
9) What actions have I taken? Now is the time to help your child think about child-progress or lack of progress toward his or her goal,
10) What barriers or problems have been removed? Talk about the things that are different now concerning what was in the child's way,
11) What has changed about what I don't know? Parent Suggestions include: supporting child to rethink a goal if he or she has not made much progress, helping the child to decide if his or her goal should remain the same or change, helping a child to decide whether his or her Action Plan was workable, and/or helping a child change it.
12) Do I know what I want to know? Your child can answer this clearly, but you may want to talk about progress made on the goal to a greater extent than just a "yes or no" answer. Here you both can decide whether to set a new goal, work on the old one some more (if the plan is viable), or revise the plan to make the goal more realistic.

Note: It is fine to go back to either Phase 1 or Phase 2 of the model, if your child is unsure about what to do. If he or she does not have a clear idea of the goal, then you should review Phases 1 and 2. If your child has not taken any action toward goal attainment, you and your child need to talk about the action plan (Phase 2) again. Working through all three phases of the model provides the best source of feedback regarding self-regulated problem solving and a beginning step toward self-determination.

The amount of time needed, the number of times you need to ask about the goal, and the general support for problem solving and goal setting depend on each child, his or her ability and age, the environment, and the type of goal. This might mean you want to talk about goals on a daily basis or perhaps three times per week, depending on the circumstances. Older children may need only weekly contact, especially if they use some way to write down or remember what they have done, such as a chart or sticker board.

Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 3

Adjust Goal or Plan

Problem for Child to Solve: What have I learned?

Child Question 9: What actions have I taken?

Parent Suggestion

- Help child to self-evaluate progress toward goal.

Child Question 10: What barriers or problems have been removed?

Parent Suggestion

- Talk with child to help him or her compare his or her progress with goals.

Child Question 11: What has changed about what I don't know?

Parent Suggestions

- Support child to rethink a goal if he or she has not made much progress.
- Help child to decide if his or her goal remains the same or changes
- Talk with child to see if his or her Action Plan is okay or not, depending on the revised goal
- Help child to change Action Plan if necessary.

Child Question 12: Do I know what I want to know?

Parent Suggestions

- Help child to see if progress is acceptable, or if goal has been finished
- Be sure to ask what child felt about the goal, what he or she learned or thought about the goal.

Joe worked hard on his project. He went to the library and found a plan for making a birdhouse that he liked very much. It was a little too hard for him, so he and his parents decided to make it easier by leaving out some decorative parts and painting "Grandpa's Bird house, Love, Joe" on it. For Question 10, Joe answered that the barriers removed were that he got some outside help and read about building. Someone helped him understand what he read. Also, because he was using tools to do it, his project had to be done in partnership with an adult. When asked what had changed about what he did not know (Question 11), Joe said that he knew what he had to buy to make the birdhouse. (See Joe's answers to Phase 3 questions on p. 16.)

For Question 12, Joe admitted that he did not know everything that he needed to know yet. He still needed to do the building, and then he had to get some paint. He thought he would need some more help, as well as more money to finish his project, so Joe and his parents went back to Phase 1 and set a revised goal in Question 4 to continue building the project and doing chores to make money for the building materials. Joe will make extra money by pulling weeds in the garden for his Aunt Betty. Joe is still excited about his big present for his grandpa and hopes to finish in time for the party. He knows Grandpa will be very proud of him.

Joe actually achieved the goal he set to get a book and some materials, as stated in Phase 1, Question 4. Although he had not finished the larger goal of building his grandfather's present yet, he completed the steps set out in Question 4 and can feel good about making progress toward the overall project. By continuing to work on smaller parts of the large project for his goals, Joe and his parents can practice the goal setting and problem solving steps together, and, by using them often Joe can begin to learn them.

Chapter 3

Self-Determination Elements That Support Goal Setting and Problem Solving

This chapter has suggestions to help your child learn to use the Self-Determined Learning Model.

Choice Making

Making choices has two parts: knowing what you prefer and actually choosing it. Parents can support choice making as soon as a child has some way to communicate (pointing, gesturing, and, eventually speaking, if possible). By starting with simple choices, "Such as milk or juice?" children can learn to make choices initially. As they grow and develop, children can learn increasingly complex choice making with multiple options. By actively providing choices during learning activities, teachers also promote choice making,

Choice making is used in all three phases of the model. In Phase 1, Set a Goal, children need to identify strengths and needs, as well as communicate preferences, interests, beliefs, and values. Children must be able to decide on their priorities, resources, and problems or barriers. Later, in Phase 2, children choose a plan of action to work on their stated goal. In Phase 3 children use choice and decision making to evaluate goals and their outcomes.

Although children in elementary school may be quite good at making choices, activities still need to be structured so that there are plenty of opportunities for choice making. In addition, children may need to learn the best way to communicate their preferences. The process of communicating preferences includes learning to listen as well as talk, or using a communication device in situations that need choice making. Families can provide a few of the following choices within an activity:

- Choice of materials,
- Choice among different activities,
- Choice to refuse to participate in an activity,
- Choice of people to be included in or excluded from an activity,
- Choice of location of an activity,
- Choice of time an activity should occur,
- Choice to end a particular activity. (Brown, Belz, Corsi, & Wenig, 1993)

Choice can be provided within each family's or school's rules and limits at home. Depending on personality and individual characteristics, children may be more motivated and perhaps less likely to show difficult behaviors.

More about Setting Goals

Goals can be chosen around a child's interests and preferences. Adults and children can set guidelines for goals together, such as:

- What I want to learn or do (goal topic)
- Amount of time needed to meet the goal
- Time spent working on a goal at home
- Other people who will help.

Be sure to support child choice and self-direction (within family limits) in this process.

The following example shows that parents can set boundaries and limits on their children's goal setting, and allow them to make choices, too:

> *Mary wants to set a goal: to save money to buy her own television set, but Mrs. Karl, her mother, does not think this is a good idea. Mary is only in the first grade. Should she have a television set of her own? Besides, saving enough money would take too long (about 5 years). A television is not something a first grader should have, according to Mary's mother. There are other things that Mary wants that are within her interests and her mother's limits, such as a new backpack or a Walt Disney movie videotape. Mary and Mrs. Karl decide together to set a goal to open a savings account for a long-term purchase (maybe a computer?) and save money in Mary's piggy bank for a short-term purchase of a videotape.*

Here Mary and her mother set a goal by talking about it together. Using the model to set a goal is a process of *mutual agreement*, with parent and child working out the resolution of the problem or goal within boundaries determined by family needs and beliefs. Mary's mother did not think that a first grader should have a television set but used the opportunity to help Mary learn about money. With her mother's approval, Mary was still able to make some individual choices about what she did with the money.

Dreams for the future are one aspect of long-term goals on which children may wish to focus. These dreams should be encouraged, but a dream is essentially a goal without a plan. For example, children may say they want to play professional sports but have no plans to meet that goal. A young child may want to become a teacher but have no idea how that can be accomplished.

Almost every goal or plan for long-term success involves immediate parental support. Remember, as young children start the process of learning to set a goal, develop a plan, and evaluate the plan or goal, they are beginning the process of learning to become self-determined–with adult guidance and support. This process needs your help over time to be successful, however.

It is easier to use the Self-Determined Learning Model on smaller goals the first time, to become familiar with the model's structure. Here is an example of a shorter goal, that could be a part of long-term goal. *If Suzanne wants to work on a letter to her cousin in Iowa but has problems writing many words, then her parent might write down what she says for now, and have Suzanne sign her name. They can set a goal, to write several letters and words that are especially hard for Suzanne. They can work toward a long-term goal of writing a whole letter independently but break the goal into several smaller parts. After she works on "j" and "k" for a while and gets better at them, Suzanne could extend her short-term goal to printing the letters "m" and "n". Or, depending on her age and ability, Suzanne might learn a different way to write, such as using voice-activated software on a computer, or keyboarding.*

If a larger goal is broken into parts for use with the model, children can see their own progress, achieve more, and use the model questions in a way that helps them learn the process of goal setting. If a child insists on setting a very large goal, the parent and child can work through phases to realize that this goal might work better if it is divided into smaller parts.

Some general ideas for helping with goal setting at home:

- Help children set realistic and short-term goals
- Help children clearly state their goals in specific terms
- Help children set relevant goals for themselves and their family situation
- Help children set goals that include the steps for achieving the goal (e.g. "I will learn to play soccer by practicing my dribbling)
- If children are unable to think of any goals, then suggest two or three goals, and have your child choose one. (Doll and Sands, 1998)

Decision Making

Decision making often occurs in combination with choice making and problem solving. Choice making is deciding what you prefer and selecting one way to do something. In decision making we consider the pros and cons of various choices-thinking about what will be good and why. Each of these activities is part of problem solving, a larger concept. In addition to choosing among alternatives and indicating preferences, individuals must use problem solving to determine the best, most effective solution. Choice and decision making should be directly taught at school and at home.

Decision making is used in all three phases of the Self-Determined Learning Model, as is choice making. When children are setting a goal (Phase1), they must decide between possible alternatives. Later, when adopting a plan (Phase 2) and adjusting that plan (Phase 3), they must make decisions about self-evaluation. In the end, children must decide whether they have achieved their goal, whether they want to set a new goal or work on the current one longer, by adjusting their plan.

By directly learning the steps in the process, children, with adult guidance, can begin to use effective decision making in many aspects of their lives. They continue to need adult support for issues that impact their health, safety, well-being, and future. Families need to set careful limits to help their children make age-appropriate decisions. Adults can support practice in decision making in a way that protects and preserves children from exposure to physical and emotional risks. Patience is required, but parents also know that sometimes they do not have time to talk about all the alternative choices. For example, it is better for Mr. Small to push Jessica out of the way of a moving car than to give her reasons why she should step back from the street. Whenever possible, however, parents should plan enough time to assist their children in learning to consider alternatives in decisions.

These suggestions support the use of decision making:

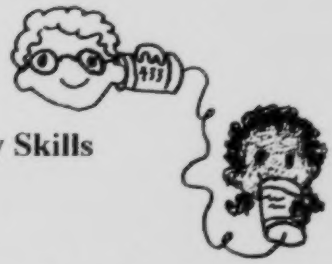
- Plan activities that encourage children to set their own goals.
- Provide additional choices or help children in the process of thinking of more options
- Help children identify additional information that might be needed, or help them check the accuracy of given information, in order to make effective choices and decisions.
- Have children think aloud when analyzing their decisions, so that their understanding of key information can be monitored. (Use effective listening to talk with children. Restate what children say and wait to hear what they say. This method ensures that adults use a communication style that is less directive, thus allowing children to use their own words and have time to gather their thoughts.
- Encourage children to think about the relevance of information they have collected about a particular decision and to disregard information that is not important. Children can realize that information sources may provide biased information.
- Assist children in thinking about the risks and benefits of each solution that is generated. Help them consider the consequences of various plans of action. Enable children to realize that each option may have positive and negative results.
- Help children analyze thinking patterns, with the understanding that adults and children may give different values to risks and benefits.

- Enable children to rule out several alternatives, and then reexamine the remaining solutions, before making a final decision.
- Show sensitivity to a child's emotions; many decisions are emotion-laden. Help children realize that emotions or impulsivity might cause them to make an immediate judgment, rather than one based on consideration of risk and benefits.
- Be understanding of the influence of conflict on decisions. Talk about compromise and negotiation in situations of conflict.
- Work with children who may be reluctant to make decisions by having them write down the information regarding various solutions, and the actual decision that they make.
- Help children understand the impact of their decisions, evaluate their effectiveness, and make changes when needed.

(Adapted from Doll and Sands, 1998)

Use of student-driven goals and problems to solve will draw the interest of the child to decision making. Parents and teachers can introduce the idea of making choices and decisions, work on the activity so that it is within the ability of the child (not too hard or too easy) and help children to become independent decision-makers. Through decision making, children can start to become aware of personal strengths and weaknesses, understand concepts, become more involved in their world, work toward later independence of thought and actions, and gain a sense of being effective.

Chapter 4



Communication and Self-Advocacy Skills

Communication and Social Skills

Young children need to be able to communicate in their world-at home, at school, and in the community. Communication skills for this model range from simple interaction and choice making to more complex communication ability, such as social problem solving.

Communication skills are used in all three phases of the Self-Determined Learning Model. If a problem related to communication and social skills is identified, what should a parent or teacher do? As the child works on the Child Questions of the model, there will be some opportunity to discuss social skills. If the child's goal is primarily social in nature, then you can talk directly about social skills. If another type of goal is set, there are always barriers to attainment that can be discussed. Social skills can be addressed when answering the questions in Phase 1 related to "What must change for me to learn what I don't know?" and "What can I do to make this happen?" Then again in making a plan (Phase 2), and evaluating the plan or goal (Phase 3), social skills can be encouraged. Children may need help with communicating their answers to any of the twelve Child Questions. Communication will be a part of every phase of a goal concerning social interaction.

Parents can consider the social skills of their children, not only in their home, but also in the context of school and community. It is appropriate and desirable for children to be able to make adjustments based on each situation and context. Even though all children are influenced by home and family, they also need to learn to conform to classroom rules and regulations. Teachers need to be aware of individual differences that result from a child's disability and be sensitive to how they affect relationships within the classroom. Parents can help by giving information about the social skills of their children.

It is sometimes difficult to describe your child's ability to communicate and interact with others. Unfortunately you cannot change essential parts of your child's personality, such as how happy they appear or how much they like to be with others. You can, however, structure their activities and environmental influences to help children develop more interactive communication. You might ask the questions about your child's communication that follow on the next page.

Does your child:

- Display a positive mood-not always happy but usually agreeable?
- Have a positive relationship with one or two other children?
- Approach others positively?
- Have reasons for his or her actions?
- Express wishes and choices clearly?
- Become easily intimidated by bullies?
- Express anger or frustration without harming others?
- Play or work with others by gaining access to these groups?
- Participate in conversations, by taking turns talking?
- Take turns fairly easily during play?
- Show interest in others?
- Exchange information with peers?
- Display nonverbal interaction with other children?

Is your child:

- Able to do things alone sometimes?
- Able to follow simple directions?
- Able to assert rights and needs appropriately?

(McClellan & Katz, 1993)

Which experiences might your child need to improve some of his or her communication skills?

When you talk about social needs with your child, you will want to find a quiet time and place to talk. Use open-ended questions to find out whether your child acknowledges any difficulty. If not, focus his or her attention in a calm but specific manner on getting along with others. By talking about positive consequences or change help identify other behaviors to replace actions that are causing difficulty. Use role playing and discussion to illustrate behaviors and consequences. Offer praise and support for improvement in social skills. Think ahead about potential situations that need this type of action or behavior and talk about them.

To solve a problem related to a social situation, social problem solving uses communication and social skills in combination. The steps in solving social problems include:

- Realizing that there is a problem
- Thinking of some alternatives to solve the problem
- Doing some step-by-step planning
- Thinking about consequences
- Practicing some role play about the problem to make sure that the child has a workable solution to the problem.

The Self-Determined Learning Model helps to identify problems and solutions, and to evaluate activities that help in this process.

Self-Advocacy Skills

Advocacy means speaking up for oneself or for a cause or position. Students in elementary school are rarely called upon to be their own advocates. However, there are times that being able to make something happen at school or in the community requires the ability to be an advocate. The skills for self-advocacy are based on social interaction and communication skills: knowing when and where to talk, how to take turns listening to others, and deciding who is the best person to approach or which office to contact.

People who are self-advocates can communicate their feelings, points of view, and desires, as well as disability awareness to others. Children who can speak up for themselves will practice this role throughout school and display self-determined behavior in many settings. With an adult's help, young children can begin to use self-advocacy skills. Often children watch their parents and learn by observation. If you wish to become an advocate for your child, here are some suggestions:

- Assume you are an equal partner in your child's education or transition process,
- Acquire knowledge, ask questions,
- Improve your skills in communication, letter writing, record keeping, and
- Participate in meetings, conferences, and school functions.

Social interaction is sometimes a challenge for young children, especially for children with cognitive disabilities, who may be limited by language or other constraints. Children who are quiet or worried about what others will say about them need to start being more active communicators. On the other hand, children who tend to speak out without permission in the classroom or who are continuously having problems because they are disruptive at school need to work on ways to communicate more effectively and quietly. There must be a balance, depending on the individual differences of the child who is developing advocacy skills.

Children can learn advocacy skills, practice, and then begin to generalize these abilities to other settings. Learning to talk about what you like or do not enjoy is a way to become more assertive. Practicing at home about what to say and do in various situations can benefit a child's communication and understanding. Using the skills that you learn and practice will be easier if parents can give some cues to their children and help them understand when to use their advocacy skills or generalize what they know to other situations. Generalizing skills means being able to use the same or a similar skill in many different places, not just in the one where place you learned to do it. Supporting self-advocacy can begin when children are young. This provides more time for children with disabilities to practice and generalize abilities for advocacy.

Parents may wish to help their children with self-advocacy and assertiveness in everyday situations such as at the grocery store, in the library, or at a fast food restaurant. Children can be supported to make some choices and decisions about food, books or other items and then, by using advocacy skills, be part of making those selections happen. Parents can help their children become more self-sufficient in familiar places that they visit often, to support continued self-advocacy for later years. School provides a number of opportunities for self-advocacy training. For example, Hank's favorite subject is science. Because of his speech therapy schedule, he was unable to be in science class. Hank asked for help from the special educator to coach him to ask for a change in his schedule. Other ideas for practicing self-advocacy might be in groups with other students–remembering to take a turn to speak rather than waiting for someone to ask your opinion, listening (rather than talking all the time). An older child may need to ask a paraprofessional to "Help me only when I ask you–I need to get my materials ready for class just the way all the other kids do."

Parents can sometimes see when a task is too difficult for their child and help when needed. They can remind their child to ask for help when necessary. Children can benefit from focusing on speaking out when they need help. If the student's goal relates to such an issue, or if a barrier to success can be overcome by being assertive, speaking up for oneself can be used with the Self-Determined Learning Model.

In order to organize your thinking about self-advocacy, you might work with your children on being able to identify themselves and their disability. Also, understanding the rules of home or school will be helpful in supporting your child's behavior and communication. Below is a short form that may be useful for your children to identify when they can do that with your support or when they are not with you. A blank form to copy is in Appendix C. Children can start to become their own advocates, so that they can learn to be safe and feel important even when you are not with them. There are many opportunities for your child to answer questions that might arise about their disability.

Who am I?

My first name is: *Betty* **My last name is:** *Zay*

Parent name(s): *John and Mary Zay*

My brothers and sisters: *Jerry (age 3)*

I live at: *100 Smith Drive* **in** *Everywhere*

in the state of Happiness

My telephone number is: *000-0000*

Things I like to do: *draw pictures, read books*

Here's what I say to tell people what I can do for myself: *I can get to class and hang up my jacket and put my books away myself. I go to the school library to check out books, but I might need your help to reach a book on the top shelf. I can cut my sandwich* *up but would like you to carry my tray to the tray return when we are finished with lunch. I can push my chair myself, but thank you for your offer of help.*

Here's what I say to tell people what I may not be able to do alone: *Getting my wheelchair to be where everyone else is playing, having someone help me on the playground*

Rules and Extra Help:

At *school* I know the rules of my classroom. These are the ones that are really important: *Be kind to everyone, say only nice things, ask the teacher for help when I need it, and remember to put away my drawings before I do classwork.*

At *home* I know the rules and expectations of my parents. These are the ones that are really important: *Let my mother or dad know when I need help lifting something heavy, pick only one television show to watch every night, and be sure my baby brother is not under the wheels of my chair when I move it.*

I need to ask questions *at school or home* when: *I don't know what to do next, I am hungry, or I don't know something.*

At *school*, I help these people (list of people and what I do for them): *Mrs. Jones–I put the menu on the bulletin board, Mr. Jeffries-help put up the flag, Amanda–I am her reading buddy to help with words. Terry–trade seats during math so he can see better.*

At *school*, I can ask these people if I have a question or need something: *Mr. Jones, Miss Henry, Mr. Smith, and Sarah, my buddy for this week*

In my *neighborhood and at home*, I can help these people (names and what I do for them): *Mr. Baxter- play with his dog, Snoopy; Mrs. Smith–say hello to her and talk with her when she is outside her house; Annie–help her do her math homework after school; my little brother–play with him so my mother can cook dinner*

In *my neighborhood and at home*, I can ask these people if I have a question or need something: *Barbie, Suzy, Mary, and Mrs. Perkins, Mom, and Dad*

Here's how I ask people to help me:
First, I look at them to make sure they are looking at me. Then, I ask them to hold the door for me, or to put my books in my backpack. If they are busy, I ask someone to help.

I need to remember to do this to communicate better: Look at people when I talk with them, so that they look at me, too.

If someone asks, here's how I explain about any disability I have: *When I was born, I could not move my legs, so I have to sit in a wheelchair to move very far.*

Chapter 5

Using Self-Management with the Model

Parents can help their children to use self-management at home to organize their activities. This provides practice both at home and in the community for some self-management skills that a child is learning at school. Self-management uses strategies such as self-monitoring (paying attention to what I do), self-evaluation (how well did I do it?), and self-reinforcement (Because I did a good job, I feel better about myself; I can do something special).

Self-monitoring is paying attention to what you are doing and then showing that you have done it. You can show your child how to use self-monitoring to increase a desired behavior, such as cleaning up his or her room. For example, when you ask a child to clean up, he or she may not know how to start. Begin by asking your child what part he or she wants to do first, "Where should we start, the floor or the dresser?" (*Note: If you say, "Do you want to clean up your room?" or "Do you want to start now?" your child may say "NO!"*)

Then talk about what things should be done or what makes a room look clean, "We need to dust and put away your books- where should they go?" If you are certain a child already knows how to clean his or her room (because you worked through this procedure once), you might break the task into smaller parts, such as 1) desk, 2) floor, 3) clothes, etc. Tasks such as these can be self-monitored easily by using a checklist or chart that describes or gives a picture of the things that must be done. As each part is completed, check marks, stickers, stamps, etc., can be used to show that the job is finished.

Cleaning My Room–What I did each day

	Pick up Clothes	Clean desk	Clean floor
Monday	X		
Wednesday		X	
Friday	X		X

Keep in mind that young children and some children with disabilities need *simple instructions*. No matter what task is selected, start out with simple, easy steps. Some tips on giving directions to young children: (1) give one direction at a time, 2) be specific about the task, and 3) give short, simple directions. Remember to approach this as a way to have children learn, and give them extra help while they are learning.

Self-evaluation includes looking at what was done and deciding whether it was finished and if it is a good job. After your child cleans up his or her room, then self-evaluation happens when your child looks at the room and decides if it meets the expectations that you two have discussed. Self-evaluation is an important part of self-management; it helps to think about what you do and how you do it. You can decide if you need more work or to pay attention to other important things, once you know that you are doing all right.

Cleaning My Room What I did and when	**Pick up Clothes**–Put shirts and pants on hangers, put underwear and socks in my drawer.	**Clean desk**–Put away extra papers and pencils, dusted the desk top and lamp.	**Clean floor**–Pick up everything that is on the floor, put shoes in closet
Monday	X – *I hung up 2 pairs of pants and 2 shirts today. My underwear and socks are in the drawer.*		
Wednesday		X – *I put away my school papers and pencils. I did the dusting.*	
Friday	X – I *hung up clothes and put them in the drawers. No clothes are around.*		X – *I* put *shoes in closet and picked up my papers.*

Self-reinforcement happens when the activity is completed. A child can reinforce himself or herself by either (1) selecting a reward, or by (2) getting positive feedback from others about the good job he or she did. If your child has cleaned up his or her room as expected, then the work should be praised or rewarded as soon as possible. Rewards can be anything that you find appropriate, but *the best rewards are often the verbal praises, such as "good job" or "I knew you could do it!", and attention received from you.* Some other examples of rewards include reading a book together, watching a favorite TV show, walking to the park, receiving stickers, spending time with grandparents or other family members, and other similar things. You know your child best, so plan to have a variety of options for your child to choose from when the time comes.

Preparing for Self-Management. Before beginning, you and your child should talk about something to change or do better. Decide specifically what this could be and write it down. This activity can be part of Phase 1 of the Self-Determined Learning Model. Decide on something that is visible or understandable so that he or she see, that it can be accomplished. Some examples might be remembering to pick up toys before bedtime or reading a book 15 minutes a day to practice skills. It will also benefit you if you write a description of the expected behavior and make sure that your child understands it. You could use photos or picture symbols to describe something if your child needs assistance with reading. That way, if there are any questions, you and your child can look at this description later. Some examples of behaviors that children can self-manage are: cleaning their rooms, playing quietly, doing homework, reading daily, or completing chores around the house. You can decide together what would be a good activity to self-monitor.

Next, make a chart or form so your child can record his or her behavior. The chart design should be simple and include your child's name, a title describing its purpose and a place to write down the date and check off the behavior. This might look like a calendar with the days of the week on it, or it could be a list that your child can check off each time the preferred behavior is performed. You can write instructions on how to use the chart if your child is older and can read. It is also good to have instructions written on it if you have a babysitter or relative come in to care for your child. A chart needs to be something children can relate to, so plan to have them use stickers, stamps, stars, markers, happy faces, etc. Put the chart where your child can see it and get to it without having to ask for your help.

Child's Name______________

	Mon.	**Tues.**	**Wed.**	**Thurs.**	**Fri.**	**Sat.**	**Sun.**
Read 15 min.							
Talk about what I read							

Using Self-Monitoring, or Did I do what I said I would? Before you begin to show your child how to use a self-monitoring chart or form, you should sit down and talk together about self-management. Use terms that the child can understand. Instead of "self-monitoring", say "pay attention to what you are doing and then show that you have done it" or something similar. Children should understand what they will be doing and why they will be doing it. Explain to your child what things need to be changed and talk about the good things that might result from the change. Reasons for behavior change can include greater acceptance in social groups, playing with friends, gaining more responsibility (being able to do things alone), learning something new, or getting better grades.

Show your child how to clean his or her room and use a self-management check list that has all the things you both decided make a room clean: pick clothes up, make bed, put toys away, etc. In order to decide some of these things, both of you can talk about them first. While showing your child how to use the form, both of you work to clean the room and talk about the things completed. Show the child the list and go over it before beginning. Let your child choose the order of tasks. As each task is completed, show your child how to indicate that it has been completed (using a check mark or a sticker).

Additional hints:

- Keep looking at the self-monitoring form your child is using and watch him or her using it.
- If your child starts forgetting to do the task or to use the chart, remind him or her.
- If he or she does not complete the behavior as you have agreed that it would be done or is not using the form correctly, show him or her how to do it again. This will often be the case with younger children, young people who have challenging behaviors, and children with developmental disabilities.

If you find that your child is performing the desired behavior and using the self-management plan without any problems, then you can slowly decrease the use of the form, so that your child does not have to use it on a daily basis. The goal of self-managed behavior is to complete tasks, to evaluate them, and then to receive rewards. Once your children start doing the tasks such as hanging up coats and putting away school bags when they come home without having to be reminded or without referring to the self-management form, then the tasks have become part of routines. Most of the time, this fading happens naturally as the children become proficient at doing the task or exhibiting preferred behavior.

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Appendix A

Children's Books about Problem Solving

Children's Books about Problem Solving

Parents and teachers can read these books to children and talk about how the characters in the stories solve problems and set goals. They can also enjoy being together and sharing the pleasure of reading and the discovery of "new friends" in children's literature.

Alexander, Martha. *You're a Genius, Blackboard Bear*. Cambridge, MA: Candlewick Press, 1995, 22 pp.
ISBN: 1-56402-238-2
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Anthony gets some help from Blackboard Bear to build a spaceship to the moon.

Allen, Pamela. *Who Sank the Boat?* New York: Putnam, 1982, 28 pp.
ISBN: 0-698-11373-X 28
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: The reader is invited to guess who causes the boat to sink when five animals of varying sizes decide to go for a row.

Ames, Michael. *The Wonderful Box.* New York: E. P. Dutton, 1978, 26 pp.
ISBN: 0-525-43200-0
Pictures: Black and white
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Three children find a large, beautifully wrapped box, turn it in at the police station, and wait thirty days while wondering what is inside.

Armitage, Ronda & Armitage, David. *Ice Cream for Rosie*. London: Deutsch, 1981, 28pp.
ISBN: 0-233-97361-3
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Rosie's shop runs out of ice cream, and she solves the problem.

Atwater, Robert & Atwater, Florence. *Mr. Popper's Penguins*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1938 and 1966, 139 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-05842-4
Pictures: Black and white
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: Mr. Popper, a house painter, dreams of going to the polar regions. An unexpected delivery of a large crate of Antarctic penguins changes his life.

Berenstain, Stan & Berenstain, Jan. *The Berenstain Bears' Trouble with Money.* New York: Random House, 1983, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-394-85917-0
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Brother and Sister Bear learn some important lessons about earning and spending money.

Brillhart, Julie. *Story Hour - Starring Megan.* Morton Grove, IL: Albert Whitman & Co., 1992, 28 pp.
ISBN: 0-8075-7628-X
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: When Megan's mother, the librarian, cannot read to the children at a story hour, beginning reader Meagan takes over the job.

Brown, Marc. *Arthur's Eyes.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1979, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-11063-9
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: When Arthur gets his new glasses, his friends tease him, but soon he learns to wear the glasses with pride.

Brown, Marc. *Arthur Goes to Camp.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1982, 31 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-11218-6
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Arthur does not want to be at Camp Meadowcroak, and when mysterious things start happening there, he decides to run away.

Brown, Marc. *Arthur Meets the President.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1991, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-11265-8
Pictures: Color
Level: K–2
Brief Description: Arthur's essay wins a contest, and he has to recite it to the President of the United States. Arthur is nervous.

Brown, Marc. *Arthur's Computer Disaster.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1997, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-316-11016-7
Picture: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Arthur disobeys his mother by playing his favorite game on her computer. He learns a lesson in taking responsibility for his actions.

Browne, Anthony. *Bear Hunt.* New York: Doubleday, 1979, 22 pp.
ISBN: 0-385-41568-0
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Bear goes for a walk in the jungle and solves his problem of escaping the hunters by using his magic pencil.

Browne, Eileen. (Illustrated by David Parkins.) *No Problem.* Cambridge, MA: Candlewick Press, 1993, 32 pp.
ISBN: 1-56402-176-9
Pictures: Color
Level: K-2
Brief Description: Mouse's friends take turns putting together the pieces that come in a box as a birthday present, but only Shrew, who takes the time to read the instructions, is able to build something that really works.

Buchanan, Heather S. *George and Matilda Mouse and the Moon Rocket.* New York: Simon & Schuster, 1991, 25 pp.
ISBN: 0-671-75864-0
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: When George and Matilda Mouse search, with a rocket, for a missing moon, Matilda nearly loses her life.

Cleary, Beverly. (Illustrated by Mary Stevens.) *The Real Hole.* New York: William Morrow & Co., 1960, 30 pp.
ISBN: 60-5797 (Library of Congress)
Pictures: Some Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Jimmy likes to do real things, so his father gives him a shovel and he digs a hole. Jimmy's dad solves the problem of what to do with the hole.

Clymer, Ted & Mills, Miska . (Illustrated by Leslie Morrell) *Horse and the Bad Morning*, New York: E.P. Dutton, 1982, 27 pp.
ISBN: 0-525-45103X
Pictures: Black and white
Level: K–2
Brief Description: Of all the animals in the barnyard, only Horse can find nothing good about his morning and what he sees every day. His friend, Mouse, comes up with a plan to make him feel better.

Cole, Babette. *Princess Smartypants*. New York: Putnam, 1986, 29 pp.
ISBN: 0-399-21409-7
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Princess Smartypants does not want to marry any of her royal suitors. She finds difficult tasks that no one can solve–except one person.

Cooney, Nancy Evans. (Illustrated by Diane Dawson.) *The Blanket That Had to Go*. New York: Putnam, 1981, 27 pp.
ISBN: 0-399-20716-3
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Suzie takes her blanket everywhere. Her mother tells her she can't take the blanket with her to kindergarten. What does Suzie do?

Cooney, Nancy Evans. *Donald Says Thumbs Down*. New York: Putnam, 1987, 27 pp.
ISBN: 0-399-21373-2
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Donald is too old to suck his thumb. His preschool friends laugh at him when he does it. Donald finally decides how to solve his problem.

Demerest, Chris L. *No Peas for Nellie*. New York: Aladdin Books, 1991, 29 pp.
ISBN: 0-689-71474-2
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Nellie tells her parents all the things she would rather eat than peas (spider, aardvarks, crocodile). While she talks about peas, she finishes them all.

Galdone, Paul. *The Magic Porridge Pot*. New York: Seabury Press, 1976, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-8164-3173-6
Pictures: Color
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: The porridge pot makes food for the little girl, but problems start when her mother tries to use it.

Hopkinson, Deborah. *Sweet Clara and the Freedom Quilt*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1993, 31 pp.
ISBN: 0-679-82311-5
Pictures: Color
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: In order to get out of the fields, Clara learns how to sew, but as she learns her trade, she also figures out a way to make a quilt with a map pattern that guides her and others to freedom in the North.

Hughes, Shirley. *An Evening at Alfie's*. New York: William Morrow, 1984, 29 pp.

ISBN: 0-688-04122-1
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: While Alfie's parents are out one evening, a burst pipe causes chaos, but Alfie, his babysitter, and the sitter's parents find a solution.

Hutchins, Pat. *The Doorbell Rang.* New York: Greenwillow Books, 1986, 22 pp.
ISBN: 0-688-052-5
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Every time the doorbell rings, more people arrive to share the cookies.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Goggles!* New York: Macmillan, 1969, 32 pp.
ISBN: 70-78081
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Peter finds some motorcycle goggles, but some older boys want to take them away from him. Peter; Willie, his dog; and his friend Archie figure out how to get away from the older boys and still keep the goggles.

Keats, Ezra Jack. *Whistle for Willie.* New York: Viking Press, 1964, 28 pp.
ISBN: 670-76240-7
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Peter wished that he could whistle, but he couldn't. So as he played, he continued to try to whistle until he finally learned how.

Kellogg, Steven. *The Mystery of the Stolen Blue Paint.* New York: Dial Press, 1982, 27 pp.
ISBN: 0-8037-5654-2
Pictures: Black, white, and blue
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Belinda has set out to paint a picture and is followed along by her cousin and some of his friends. When a windstorm blows up, she has to chase her picture down. Meanwhile, her blue paint has disappeared. That is when Inspector Belinda Baldini takes over to find the blue paint.

Krischanitz, Raoul. *Nobody Likes Me!* New York: North-South Books, 1999, 26 pp.
ISBN: 0-7358-1055-9
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: Buddy is a new dog in town, and when he tries to make new friends, he gets the idea that nobody likes him. A fox that sees him crying gives him an idea to find out why nobody likes him.

Krous, Robert & Krous, Bruce. *The Detective of London.* New York: Windmill Books and E. P. Dutton, 1978, 30 pp.
ISBN: 0-525-61568-7
Pictures: None
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: Professor Herringbone has unearthed bones of great dinosaurs, which are to be displayed for the Queen of England until they mysteriously disappear. The Detective of London uses many different approaches to find them.

Lobel, Arnold. *A Treeful of Pigs.* New York: Greenwillow Books, 1979, 26 pp.
ISBN: 0-688-80177-3
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: A farmer decides to buy some pigs and promises his wife that he will help her take care of them. He is very lazy, however, so his wife uses a variety of creative solutions to motivate him.

Mahoney, Daniel J. *The Saturday Escape.* New York: Clarion Books, 2002, 31 pp.
ISBN: 0-618-13326-7
Pictures: Color
Level: K-1
Brief Description: Three friends feel guilty about going to story hour at the library instead of doing what their parents told them to do.

Maris, Ron. *Hold Tight, Bear!* New York: Delacorte Press, 1988, 28 pp.
ISBN: 88-18102
Pictures: Color
Level: K–1
Brief Description: Bear and his friends decide to go for a picnic. After traveling a long way, everyone is tired except Bear. While the others take a rest, Bear continues exploring and then ends up falling over a ledge. A robin flies back to get Bear's friends, and they find a way to save Bear.

McDonald, Megan. *The Great Pumpkin Switch*. New York: Orchard Books, 1991, 34 pp.
ISBN: 0-531-05450-0
Pictures: Color
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: A grandfather tells a story of how he and his friend accidentally smashed a pumpkin that his sister was growing for a contest and how they found a replacement.

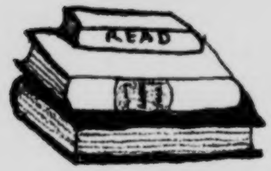
Muth, Jon J. The Three Questions. New York: Scholastic Inc., 2002, 28 pp.
ISBN: 0-439-19996-4
Pictures: Color
Level: K-3
Brief Description: Nicolai asks his animal friends to help him answer three important questions: “When is the best time to do things?” “Who is the most important one?” and “What is the right thing to do?

Silverstein, Alvin, Silverstein,Virginia, & Nunn, Laura Silverstein. *A Pet or Not?*
Bookfield, CT: Twenty-first Century Books, 1999, 48 pp.
ISBN: 0-7613-3230-8
Pictures: Color
Level: K–3
Brief Description: This book discusses some strange pets. Children can use it to find out more about some strange animals and what these animals may be like as pets.

Small, David. *Imogene's Antlers*. New York: Random House, 1985, 32 pp.
ISBN: 0-517-56242-1
Pictures: Color
Level: 2–3
Brief Description: Imogene grows antlers and has a few problems getting through her day.

Titus, Eve. *Anatole and the Cat*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1957, 32 pp.
ISBN: 57-10229
Pictures: Color
Levels: K–1
Brief Description: Anatole Mouse works as a cheese taster at a cheese factory and runs into a cat one night. He comes up with a solution on how to work without worrying about the cat.

Appendix B



Suggestions for Further Reading

Suggestions for Further Reading

Communication/Social Emotional Issues

Title: *Childhood Speech, Language, and Listening Problems: What Every Parent Should Know*, 2nd ed., 218 pp.
Author: Patricia McAleer Hamaguchi
Publication Date: 2001
Publisher: John Wiley & Sons
Address: Professional, Reference and Trade Group, 605 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10158-0012
Written for: Parents
Price: $15.95, paperback
ISBN: 0-471-38753-3
Topics: Communication problems
Age Range: All
Summary: This is a guide for parents who are concerned that their child is not progressing typically with communication skills. Its purpose is to provide parents with general information about communication and advice for parents who fear that their child is falling behind in speech, language, and listening skills. The first part of the book addresses how children learn to communicate, when parents should seek help, and what kinds of services and professionals are available. The second part focuses on specific communication problems and how they are diagnosed, characterized and treated; what parents can do to help their child; and causes or conditions associated with speech, language, and listening problems. The appendixes include lists of organizations and agencies for more information about communication problems and associated disabilities. The book contains a list of suggested reading resources and a glossary.

Title: *How to Talk So Kids Can Learn—At Home and in School*, 272 pp.
Authors: Adele Faber & Elaine Mazlish
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: Fireside
Address: Rockefeller Center, 1230 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10020
Written for: Parents and teachers
Price: $12.00
ISBN: 0-684-82472-8
Topics: Communication skills
Age Range: All
Summary: Although written from a teacher's point of view, this book is for both teachers and parents. It discusses traditional methods of communication, punishment, praise, and criticism; and it offers alternative methods that help build cooperation, self-esteem, confidence, and self-

discipline. Its format incorporates problem-solving methods, cartoons to show how situations can be handled, and questions and stories from parents and teachers. A resource for additional reading is also provided.

Title: *Playground Politics: Understanding the Emotional Life of Your School-Age Child,* 315 pp.
Author: Stanley I. Greenspan, M.D., with Jacqueline Salmon
Publication Date: 1993
Publisher: Addison Wesley
Written for: Parents
Price: $13.00, paperback
ISBN: 0-201-40830-9
Topics: Understanding the emotional challenges of the middle years of childhood.
Age Range: 5 to 12
Summary: *Playground Politics* goes far beyond informing parents of what happens on the playground. It revisits the grade-school years and helps parents understand the changes and challenges children encounter as they face emotional milestones. The authors explain how children see themselves and how they relate to others. They introduce five steps that parents can use to support their children through this development. The book highlights stories of children with emotional challenges and describes how their parents learned to use the process to support their children as they worked through them. It addresses such issues as aggression, rivalry, competition, self-esteem, and peer relations, and it examines learning challenges and other school-related topics, as well as sexuality and puberty, and balancing fantasy and reality. The afterward identifies the milestones for the different stages of the middle years and describes the general expectations for children in each stage.

Title: *Why Don't They Like Me? Helping Your Child Make and Keep Friends,* 162 pp.
Author: Susan M. Sheridan, Ph.D.
Publication Date: 1998
Publisher: Sopris West
Address/Phone No.: 4093 Specialty Place, Longmont, CO 80504. (303) 651-2829
Written for: Parents—and a good resource for teachers
Price: $18.50, paperback
ISBN: 1-57035-124-4
Topic: Social skills
Age Range: 7 to 13
Summary: Although written for parents, teachers will also find this book a valuable resource for teaching, coaching, and modeling problem-solving skills to their children to enhance their development of social skills. The book contains reproducible pages, removable social skills cards, and scripted role plays.

Development/Medical Issues

Title: *Caring for Your School-Age Child: Ages 5 to 12,* 596 pp.
Author: Edward L. Schor, M.D., F.A.A.P., (Editor-in-Chief)
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: Bantam Books
Publisher Address: 1540 Broadway, New York, NY10036
Written for: Parents and teachers
Price: $ 17.95
ISBN: 0-553-37345-5
Topics: Children's health and well-being
Age Range: 5 to 12
Summary: Although this book is a resource and reference guide for parents, it would be beneficial to teachers of 5- to 12-year-old children. It consists of nine parts: Promoting Health and Normal Development, Nutrition and Physical Fitness, Personal and Social Development, Behavior and Discipline, Emotional Problems and Behavior Disorders, Family Matters, Children in School, Chronic Health Problems, and Common Medical Problems. Each part includes information about the general topic and specific information on important issues. It does not offer cures or solutions to problems, but it does suggest possible strategies. Resources for professional help are listed. Each section contains a quick reference box that identifies health issues of special importance and states the position of the American Academy of Pediatrics on those issues.

Learning/ School Resources

Title: *Choices: Opportunities for Life, 32 pp.*
Authors: Carolyn Anderson, parent advocate, with Virginia Richardson, parent training manager, and Betty Binkard
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: PACER Center
Address/Phone No.: 4826 Chicago Avenue South, Minneapolis, MN 55417-1098. (612) 827-2966
Written for: Parents
Price: $8.00
Topic: Developing decision making in young children with disabilities
Age Range: Primarily young children, but applicable to children of all ages
Summary: This straightforward book for parents explains the importance of decision making for young children and its positive effects as they grow into adulthood. Basic steps and techniques are outlined to provide parents with a place to start allowing decision making to become a part of

everyday life for their children. Parents learn how to develop and provide opportunities for their children to use their decision-making skills continually.

Title: *A Good Kindergarten for Your Child* (NAEYC order #524); *A Good Primary School for Your Child* (NAEYC order #579)
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: National Association for the Education of Young Children
Address/Phone No.: 1509 16th Street, NW, Washington, D.C. 20036-1426. (202) 232-8777 or (800) 424-2460
Written for: Parents
Price: Single copies 50¢ each; 100 copies for $10
Topics: Guidelines for good kindergarten and primary schools
Summary: Both brochures outline the attributes of a good school. The authors explain how a good school helps children to learn and how intellectual development, social and emotional development, physical development, and language development support children's learning. The brochures contain information on curriculum and the reasons for providing children with opportunities to connect their skills and knowledge between subject areas.

Title: *Learning Opportunities beyond the School,* 2nd ed., 93 pp.
Authors: Barbara Hatcher and Shirley S. Beck, Editors
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: Association for Childhood Education International
Address/Phone No.: 17904 Georgia Avenue, Suite 215, Olney, MD 20832. (301) 570-2111 or (800) 423-3563
Written for: Parents and teachers
ISBN: 0-87173-138-X
Topic: Extending learning into the community
Age Range: All
Summary: Designed for parents and teachers who realize the importance of a holistic approach to learning, the book presents a variety of ideas on how to integrate formal and informal learning in: *places*, such as libraries, museums, and zoos; *arenas*, such as ecology, service, and community; and *resources*, such as the family or the technological environment. Most sections also offer activities and tips on how to make the most of the informal learning environment. Each section ends with a list of references and resources.

Parenting

Title: *The Challenging Child: Understanding, Raising, and Enjoying the Five "Difficult" Types of Children,* 318 pp.
Author: Stanley I. Greenspan, M.D., with Jacqueline Salmon
Publication Date: 1997

Publisher: Addison Wesley
Written for: Parents
Price: $13.00, paperback
ISBN: 0-201-44193-4
Topic: Parenting difficult children
Age Range: Birth to 8
Summary: This book for parents of children with challenging personality types outlines five difficult types of children: sensitive, self-absorbed, defiant, inattentive, and active/aggressive. Each personality trait is characterized and defined to help parents better understand their children. Dr. Greenspan offers information on types of parenting patterns to avoid and provides parents with steps to take to match parenting skills to their child's personality.

Title: *No Directions on the Package: Questions and Answers for Parents with Children from Birth to Age 12,* 215 pp.
Author: Barbara Kay Polland, Ph.D.
Publication Date: 2000
Publisher: Celestial Arts
Address: P.O. Box 7123, Berkeley, CA 94707
Written for: Parents
Price: $12.95, paperback
ISBN: 0-89087-976-1
Topic: Parenting strategies
Age Range: Birth to 12
Summary: A guide for parents of children up to 12 years of age, this book, in a question-and-answer format, addresses problems or questions that typically arise in early years. The book is divided into sections: establishing a daily routine; fostering mental development, self-esteem, autonomy, and social and emotional growth; family dynamics; and setting limits on behavior.

Title: *Parenting Young Children: Systematic Training for Effective Parenting (STEP) of Children under Six,* 138 pp.
Authors: Don Dinkmeyer, Sr.; Gary D. McKay; James S.; Don Dinkmeyer, Jr.; and Joyce L. McKay
Publication Date: 1997
Publisher: American Guidance Service, Inc.
Address/Phone No.: Circle Pines, MN 55014-1796. (800) 328-2560
Written for: Parents
Price: $15.95, paperback
ISBN: 0-679-77797-0
Topic: Parenting strategies
Age Range: Birth to 5

Summary: This tool for parents takes a positive and democratic approach based on a program called STEP, Systematic Training for Effective Parenting. The seven chapters discuss behavior, self-esteem, communication, cooperation, discipline, and the social and emotional development of young children. At the end of each chapter is a suggestion for using the strategies. Important points are outlined, tips and ideas are presented on how to use the strategies with adults, and each chapter ends with a chart that summarizes the key points.

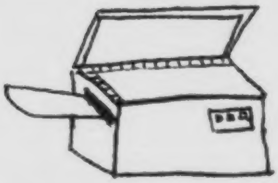
Title: *Raising a Thinking Child, Workbook,* 201 pp.
Author: Myrna B. Shure, Ph.D., with Teresa Foy Digernoimo, M.Ed.
Publication Date: 1996
Publisher: Henry Holt & Co.
Address: 115 West 18th Street, New York, NY 10011
Written for: Parents
Price: $14.95
ISBN: 0-8050-4383-7
Age Range: 4 to 7
Summary: Designed to teach children to think about their actions and how they might affect other people, this workbook can be used as a companion to *Raising a Thinking Child* or it can be used independently. It contains activities that use the I-Can-Problem-Solve program to address many common parent-child and child-child problems. The workbook is sequential. Each section includes activities for the child, scripting and directions for parents, and activities for parents. The pages may be reproduced to accommodate multiple children in a family.

Title: *The Right Stuff for Children Birth to 8: Selecting Play Materials to Support Development,* 154 pp.
Author: Martha B. Bronson
Publication Dates: 1995, 1997
Publisher: National Association for the Education of Young Children
Address/Phone Number: 1509 16th Street, NW, Washington, D.C. 20036-1426.
(202) 232-8777 or (800) 424-2460
Written for: Parents and teachers
Price: $ 11.00
ISBN: 0-935989-72-2
Topic: Appropriate play and learning materials
Age Range: Birth to 8
Summary: Designed to identify the most beneficial play and learning materials for children, this handbook furnishes information to teachers, caregivers, directors, and principals. It is also useful to parents who wish to provide their children with appropriate play and learning materials at home. Chapters 2 through 7 are devoted to each developmental group: young infants, older infants, young toddlers, older toddlers, preschool and kindergarten children, and primary-school children. Each chapter focuses on the child's general abilities and play interests in the areas of

motor skills, perceptual-cognitive abilities, and social-linguistic abilities. The book includes initial appropriateness considerations and suggestions. Categories of play and learning materials include: social and fantasy play; exploration and mastery play; music, art, and movement play; and gross-muscle motor play. Each chapter concludes with an overview of play materials, as well as discussions of priorities and special considerations. A resource list and bibliography are available, along with a Guide to Play Materials by Type in chart form for easy reference.

Title: *The Special-Needs Reading List: An Annotated Guide to the Best Publications for Parents and Professionals,* 318 pp.
Author: Wilma K. Sweeney
Publication Date: 1998
Publisher: Woodbine House
Address/Phone No.: 6510 Bells Mill Road, Bethesda, MD 20817. (800) 843-7323
Written for: Parents and teachers
Price: $18.95
ISBN: 0-933149-74-3
Topics: Information resources on all disabilities
Age Range: All
Summary: This is a resource book for parents and professionals searching for information on virtually any disability. The books and periodicals chosen for use in this guide are up-to-date, accurate, and written in clear language. The book is divided into two sections. Part 1 provides reviews of books and publications on general subjects relating to disabilities, such as disability awareness, education, health care, and technology. Part 2 provides reviews of publications on specific disabilities, from attention deficit disorders to visual impairments and blindness. Each section provides annotations of books, periodicals, Web sites, and organizations. The sections are organized by topics, such as basic information, education, parents, siblings, children, etc. The appendix contains publishers' addresses and phone numbers. The indexes include organizations, authors, titles, and subjects.

Appendix C

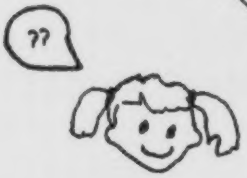


Sample Forms to Copy

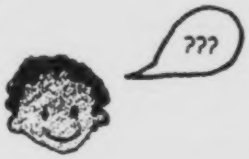
The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?



What do I want to learn?



Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

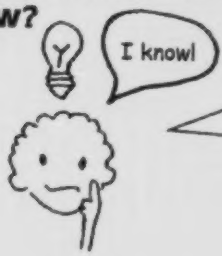
Phase 1, Set a Goal

Name ______________________________ Date ______________________

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

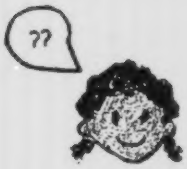
2. What do I know about it now?



3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

Me?
Something else?

4. What can I do to make this happen?

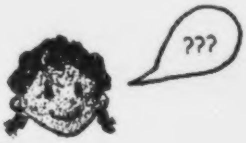


End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

Phase 2, Take Action

Name ______________________ Date ________________

Problem to Solve: What is my plan?

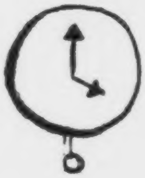


5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?

6. What could keep me from taking action?

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

8. When will I take action?



End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name ______________________________ **Date** ____________________

Problem to Solve: What have I learned?

9. What actions have I taken?

10. What barriers have been removed?

11. What has changed about what I don't know?

12. Do I know what I want to know?

Here's how I feel about what I did!

Who am I?

My first name is: ____________________ **My last name is:** ____________________

Parent name(s): ____

My brothers and sisters: ____________________________________

I live at: ______________________________ **in** ___________________________

in the state of ____

My telephone number is: ____

Things I like to do: ____

Here's what I say to tell people what I can do for myself: _____________________

____

____

____

Here's what I say to tell people what I may not be able to do alone: ______________

____

____

____

____

Rules and Extra Help:

At *school* I know the rules of my classroom. These are the ones that are really important: ____

____

____

____

At *home* I know the rules and expectations of my parents. These are the ones that are really important: ______________________________

I need to ask questions *at school or home* when: ____________________

At *school*, I help these people (list of people and what I do for them):

At *school*, I can ask these people if I have a question or need something: ________

In my *neighborhood and at home*, I can help these people (names and what I do for them): ______________________________

In *my neighborhood and at home*, I can ask these people if I have a question or need something: ______________________________

Here's how I ask people to help me: ______________________________

____

____

I need to remember to do this to communicate better: ____________________

____

____

If someone asks, here's how I explain about any disability I have: __________

____

____

____

Appendix D

The Self-Determined Learning Model, Journal Articles, and Other Information

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction was developed to provide teachers a model of instruction that supports them to enable their students to become "causal agents" in their lives and to self-direct learning. Teachers employing the model can "teach" students to use a self-regulated problem solving process to identify a preferred learning goal, to create an action plan to meet that goal, and to self-evaluate their progress toward attaining that goal. The model has educational efficacy (e.g., students achieve educationally important goals and objectives through the model) and can be applied to virtually any area of instructional need. Use of the model also promotes self-determination as students learn and use goal setting and problem-solving strategies, decision- and choice-making skills, and self-management strategies, as well as increasing self-knowledge and awareness. The model is described in three phases, with each phase incorporating student questions (which drive the process) and teacher objectives, and identifying educational supports that can be used to promote learning and self-direction.

Phase 1 of the model asks students to solve the problem: **"What is my goal?"** As is the case with each phase, there are four student questions that enable students to solve this problem, Teacher objectives associated with each question, and educational supports identified.

Table 1: Phase 1 of Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 1: Set a Goal ***Problem for Student to Solve: What is my goal?***	
Student Question 1: What do I want to learn? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable students to identify specific strengths and instructional needs. • Enable students to communicate preferences, interests, beliefs and values. • Teach students to prioritize needs. ***Student Question 2: What do I know about it now?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Assist students to gather information about opportunities and barriers in their environments. ***Student Question 3: What must change for me to learn what I don't know?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Enable students to decide if action will be focused toward capacity building, modifying the environment or both. • Support students to choose a need to address from prioritized list. ***Student Question 4: What can I do to make this happen?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Teach students to state a goal and identify criteria for achieving goal.	**Educational Supports** Student self-assessment of interests, abilities, and instructional needs Awareness Training Choice-Making Instruction Problem Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Goal-Setting Instruction

* Revised 4-98

Phase 2 of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction enables the student to solve the problem: **"What is my plan?".**

Table 2: Phase 2 of Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 2: Take Action ***Problem for Student to Solve: What is my plan?***	
Student Question 5: What can I do to learn what I don't know? **Teacher Objectives** - Enable student to self-evaluate current status and self-identified goal status ***Student Question 6: What could keep me from taking action?*** **Teacher Objectives** - Enable student to determine plan of action to bridge gap between self-evaluated current status and self-identified goal status ***Student Question 7: What can I do to remove these barriers?*** **Teacher Objectives** - Collaborate with student to identify most appropriate instructional strategies - Teach student needed student-directed learning strategies; - Support student implement student-directed learning strategies; - Provide mutually agreed upon teacher-directed instruction; ***Student Question 8: When will I take action?*** **Teacher Objectives** - Enable student to determine schedule for action plan. - Enable student to implement action plan. - Enable student to self-monitor progress.	**Educational Supports** Self-Scheduling Self-Instruction Antecedent Cue Regulation Choice-Making Instruction Goal-Attainment Strategies Problem Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Self-Advocacy Instruction Assertiveness Training Communication Skills Training Self-Monitoring

Phase 3 enables students to solve the problem: **"What have I learned?"**.

Table 3: Phase 3 of Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

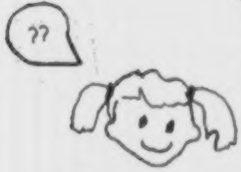
Self-Determined Learning Model, Phase 3: Adjust Goal or Plan ***Problem for Student to Solve: What have I learned?***	
Student Question 9: What actions have I taken? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to self-evaluate progress toward goal achievement. ***Student Question 10: What barriers have been removed?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Collaborate with student to compare progress with desired outcomes. ***Student Question 11: What has changed about what I don't know?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Support student to re-evaluate goal if progress is insufficient; • Assist student to decide if goal remains the same or changes; • Collaborate with student to identify if action plan is adequate or inadequate given revised or retained goal; • Assist student to change action plan if necessary; ***Student Question 12: Do I know what I want to know?*** **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to decide if progress is adequate, inadequate or if goal has been achieved;	**Educational Supports** Self-Evaluation Strategies Goal Setting Choice-Making Instruction Problem-Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Goal-Setting Instruction Self-Reinforcement Strategies Self-Monitoring Strategies Self-Recording Strategies

* Revised 4-98

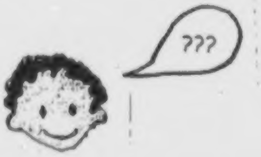
The Self-Determined Learning Model

Exploring My Interests

What do I like to do at school and at home?



What do I want to learn?



Choose one box and start the Child Questions on the next page.

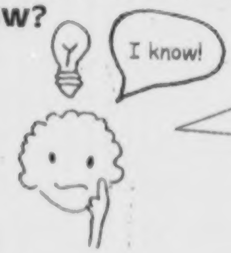
Phase 1, Set a Goal

Name ______________________ Date ________________

Problem to Solve: What is my goal?

1. What do I want to learn?

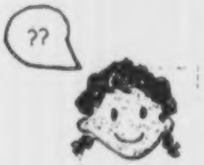
2. What do I know about it now?



3. What must change for me to learn what I don't know?

Me?
Something else?

4. What can I do to make this happen?



End of Phase 1. . .Go on to Phase 2.

Phase 2, Take Action

Name ______________________________ Date ______________________

Problem to Solve: What is my plan?

5. What can I do to learn what I don't know?

6. What could keep me from taking action?

7. What can I do to remove these barriers?

8. When will I take action?

End of Phase 2. . .I will start working on my plan and then go on to Phase 3.

Phase 3, Adjust Goal

Name ______________________________ Date ______________________

Problem to Solve: What have I learned?

9. What actions have I taken?

10. What barriers have been removed?

11. What has changed about what I don't know?

12. Do I know what I want to know?

Here's how I feel about what I did!

Early Education & Development
Volume 11, Number 4, July 2000

Promoting the Acquisition and Development of Self-Determination in Young Children with Disabilities

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Self-determination is an outcome typically associated with adolescence and adulthood, yet unless there is a solid foundation established during the early elementary years, children will not be prepared to assume greater control over their lives when the time comes to do so. This article provides an introduction to and overview of self-determination and its development, and provides recommendations for instruction during the preschool and early elementary years. We also describe a model of instruction designed to promote self-determination for students from Kindergarten through third grade, and provide suggestions for supporting families to promote this outcome.

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Promoting the Acquisition and Development of Self-Determination in Young Children with Disabilities

Jerome Bruner (1966) defined instruction as any "effort to assist or to shape growth" and noted that theories of instruction are, in effect, theories of "how growth and development are assisted by diverse means" (p. 1). The direct link between instruction, learning, and development has been the principal focus of educational programs for young children, a focus captured by the adoption across the field of the importance of *developmentally appropriate practice* to early education. The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) states that developmentally appropriate practice refers to educational programs that provide instruction and learning activities consistent with a child's developmental needs, and which focus on child-initiated, child-directed, and teacher supported activities. According to the NAEYC position statement on *Developmentally Appropriate Practice in Early Childhood Programs Servicing Children from Birth through 8* (1997) such practice depends on three kinds of information:

1. What is known about child development and learning;
2. What is known about the strengths, interests, and needs of each child;
3. What is known about the social and cultural context in which children live (pp. 4 – 5).

There is wide recognition that the early years (birth through 8) are critical times for cognitive, language, social, and emotional development as well as for the development of motor skills (Damon, 1983) and that positive, supportive parental and family relationships are as essential to such development as is educational instruction. While each of these developmental domains has milestones that are attained during the early years, intervention to promote their development also has lifelong implications. Adolescents will have difficulties becoming autonomous young adults unless their early education experiences and learning opportunities have provided a solid foundation upon which to build more sophisticated skills and capacities. Self-determination is one area of development that has primarily been viewed within the domain of adolescence and secondary education, but has its roots and foundation in early learning and experiences.

There are valid societal and developmental reasons young children are not seen as "self-determined." Because young children are not yet developmentally or emotionally capable of being autonomous and self-regulating does not, however, abrogate the need to enable all children, including children with disabilities, to learn and develop the attitudes and abilities they will need to achieve this outcome. Self-determination may be an adult outcome, but it is only achieved if there is a lifelong focus on its development and acquisition (Sands & Wehmeyer, 1996). Doll, Sands, Wehmeyer, & Palmer (1996) stated the issue as such:

> Newborns do not enter the world self-determined, but instead become self-determined through learning across multiple environments and through development within multiple domains. It is unfortunate, then, that most efforts to understand and support self-determination have dealt solely with adolescents and adults, overlooking and sometimes excluding a developmental perspective on the emergence of this outcome (p. 65).

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We have proposed a model of the development of self-determination that informs practitioners about child development and learning in this area and enables teachers and parents to apply developmentally appropriate practice to promote this outcome. This article briefly overviews the construct of self-determination, examines some aspects of its development, and provides illustrations about ways in which teachers and families can promote this outcome.

What is self-determination?

Martin and Marshall (1995) summarized the evolving definition of self-determination in the special education literature as describing individuals who:

> know how to choose – they know what they want and how to get it. From an awareness of personal needs, self-determined individuals choose goals, then doggedly pursue them. This involves asserting an individual's presence, making his or her needs known, evaluating progress toward meeting goals, adjusting performance and creating unique approaches to solve problems (p. 147).

As illustrated by this description, the *actions* of self-determined people enable them to fulfill roles typically associated with adulthood. Wehmeyer (1996; 1999) defined self-determination as "*acting as the primary causal agent in one's life and making choices and decisions regarding one's quality of life free from undue external influence or interference.*" A causal agent is someone who makes or causes things to happen in his or her life. Self-determined people act as the causal agent in their lives and act with intent to shape their futures and their destiny.

There are four *essential characteristics* of self-determined behavior: (1) the person acted *autonomously*; (2) the behavior(s) are *self-regulated*; (3) the person initiated and responded to the event(s) in a "*psychologically empowered*" manner; and (4) the person acted in a *self-realizing* manner. Self-determination emerges across the life span as children and adolescents learn skills and develop attitudes that enable them to become causal agents in their own lives. These attitudes and abilities are the component elements of self-determination, and it is at this level of the definitional framework that instructional emphasis will occur and at which the development of self-determination can be described.

Wehmeyer (1999) provided a detailed examination of this theoretical model, but briefly, behavior is *autonomous* if the person acts (a) according to his or her own preferences, interests and/or abilities, and (b) independently, free from undue external influence or interference. The degree to which people are autonomous reflects the interdependence of all family members, friends, and other people with whom we interact daily as well as the influences of environment and history.

Self-regulation "enables individuals to examine their environments and their repertoires of responses for coping with those environments to make decisions about how to act, to act, to evaluate the desirability of the outcomes of the action, and to revise their plans as necessary" (Whitman, 1990, pp. 373). Self-regulated people make decisions about what skills to use in a situation, examine the task at hand and their available repertoire, and formulate, enact and evaluate a plan of action, with revisions when necessary. Self-regulation typically includes

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self-monitoring (observation of one's social and physical environment and one's actions in those environments), *self-evaluation* (making judgments about the acceptability of this behavior through comparing information about what one is doing with what one ought to be doing) and, based upon the outcome of this self-evaluation, *self-reinforcement* (Whitman, 1990).

Psychological empowerment consists of the various dimensions of perceived control (Zimmerman, 1990). This includes the cognitive (personal efficacy), personality (locus of control), and motivational domains of perceived control. People who are self-determined do so based on the beliefs that (a) they have the capacity to perform behaviors needed to influence outcomes in their environment and (b) if they perform such behaviors, anticipated outcomes will result. Finally, self-determined people are *self-realizing* in that they use a comprehensive, and reasonably accurate, knowledge of themselves and their strengths and limitations to act in such a manner as to capitalize on this knowledge in a beneficial way. Self-knowledge forms through experience with and interpretation of one's environment and is influenced by evaluations of others, reinforcements, and attributions of one's own behavior.

Component Elements of Self-Determined Behavior

The essential characteristics that define self-determined behavior emerge through the development and acquisition of multiple, interrelated component elements. Table 1 lists these elements. Although not intended as an exhaustive taxonomy, these component elements are particularly important to the emergence of self-determined behavior.

Table 1.

Component Elements of Self-Determined Behavior

Choice-Making Skills
Decision-Making Skills
Problem-Solving Skills
Goal-Setting and Attainment Skills
Self-Observation, Self-Evaluation and Self-Reinforcement Skills
Self-Instruction Skills
Self-Advocacy and Leadership Skills
Internal Locus of Control
Positive Attributions of Efficacy and Outcome Expectancy
Self-Awareness
Self-Knowledge

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Each of these component elements has a unique developmental course or is acquired through specific learning experiences (Doll, et al., 1996). Their development and acquisition is life-long and begins when children are very young. Some elements, such as choice-making, have applicability for elementary education, while other components, like decision-making, have significance primarily during secondary education. As such, promoting self-determination as an educational outcome will require not only a purposeful instructional program, but one that coordinates learning experiences across the span of a student's educational experience. Most of the efforts to promote student self-determination have been focused on adolescent development and secondary education. The following section provides suggestions for promoting self-determination during preschool and early elementary years.

Promoting Self-Determination in the Early Years: School and Family

Obviously, many of the antecedents to self-determination are also antecedents to a wide array of adult behavior. Abery and Zajac (1996) identified the importance of language acquisition, the development of a secure attachment relationship, parenting style, and motor skills development as contributing to the development of self-determination. Beyond these more global issues, however there are more specific areas toward which efforts to promote self-determination in the early years can be targeted. Our work has focused on the essential characteristics of self-determined behavior discussed earlier, and we will explore some of these issues within the context of these characteristics. We should note, as well, that many of the activities described subsequently are addressed in the general curriculum, particularly for children in the early elementary years. The 1997 amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act requires that schools document that students with disabilities have access to the general curriculum for the simple reason that far too many children with disabilities do not receive challenging instruction driven by the general curriculum. A focus on self-determination is one way to achieve access to the general curriculum.

Promoting Autonomy: Our use of the construct autonomy owes much to two primary sources; conceptualizations of behavioral autonomy and the process of individuation. Sigafoos, Feinstein, Damond and Reiss (1988) noted that "human development involves a progression from dependence on others for care and guidance to self-care and self-direction" (p. 432). The outcome of this progression is autonomous functioning or, when describing the actions of individuals achieving this outcome, behavioral autonomy. Lewis and Taymans (1992) defined autonomy as "a complex concept which involves emotional separation from parents, the development of a sense of personal control over one's life, the establishment of a personal value system and the ability to execute behavioral tasks which are needed in the adult world" (p. 37). Developmental psychologists view the process of individuation; that is, the formation of the person's individual identity (Damon, 1983), as a critical component of social and personality development. In essence, functional autonomy or the capacity to care for one's self and to act based primarily on one's preferences, interests, wants, and needs emerges through the process of individuation, including the formation of a personal identity. Autonomy is often used as synonymous with independence, and is associated with actions like taking care of one's self-care needs, assuming basic home and work responsibilities, navigating in the community, and so forth. The degree to which families value autonomy as 'independence' may vary between and among families based on cultural or religious values or other factors, and should be considered on an individual or family basis. Autonomy as individuation may be a more universal component, but will also likely vary according to factors like culture, ethnicity or religious belief.

The earliest efforts to encourage and promote the development of autonomy should focus on choice-making and rudimentary aspects of problem solving and decision-making. Making a choice has two basic components; identifying a preference from among two or more options and communicating that preference. Preschool children recognize their own preferences and can express these when asked to do so. Young children's mastery of language is important to choice making, both as a means of expressing a preference and as a means of understanding available options. While personal experience with available options is often preferential, such as actually tasting a specific food to determine if one likes it, there are experiences or actions that might be options from which one could chose but, for one reason or another, may not be experienced beforehand [e.g., go to Disney World (unknown option) or to the lake for vacation (known option)].

For young children who do not communicate primarily through language, it is important for educators and family members to identify student preferences and to support and enable the child to communicate preferences in some manner. Hughes, Pitkin, and Lorden, (1996) conducted a review of the empirical literature on strategies to assess preferences for persons with severe disabilities who had communication disorders, and identified several different strategies for identifying preferences including: using micro-switches to communicate preferences; measuring approach toward an object as an indicator of a preference; vocalizations, signing, gestures, or affective responses to the presentation of objects; physical selection of items when presented; and time engaged with an item or object as an indicator of preferences. If the student's lack of communication skills is related to or concomitant with a cognitive disability, it may be more important to provide opportunities for a wide array of experiences with options from which the child can establish preferences, as he or she may not be able to understand those options that are only verbally described.

Making choices and expressing preferences enables children to learn more about themselves. Educational environments that provide choice-making opportunities allow children to learn about what options are, and are not, available to them and provide them with ongoing opportunities to exert control over their lives. Although some children with more significant disabilities may need systematic instruction on how to make choices (e.g., communicate one preference), most instructional activities focus not on teaching choice-making but instead on providing opportunities for students to express their preferences and make choices throughout their daily school activities. For example, Brown and colleagues (1993) developed a model of choice diversity for embedding choice-making opportunities throughout the natural course of a student's day. The model delineates seven potential areas of choice within an activity. Students can:

(a) Choose instructional materials;

(b) Choose among different activities;

(c) Choose to refuse to participate in an activity;

(d) Choose who to be included or excluded in an activity;

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(e) Choose the location of an activity;

(f) Choose the time an activity should occur; and

(g) Choose to end a particular activity.

Adults can encourage a preschoolers' emergent understanding of the links between choices and later opportunities by revisiting the choices that the child has made, helping him or her identify the consequences or outcomes of those choices, and discussing plans for similar choices in the future. This process also contributes to students' capacity to self-evaluate performance, and will contribute to the emergence of self-regulation. In addition to efforts to promote choice-making, it is important to introduce basic aspects of problem-solving and decision-making. The first step in any problem solving process is to identify and explicate the problem. Adults can encourage children to identify problems they might have as they occur and work with students to articulate possible solutions. The purpose of such instruction is not necessarily to have preschool children generate all possible solutions, but to begin to think about generating alternative solutions. Likewise, the decision-making process involves the generation of alternatives, and students should be included in decisions about their educational program.

Although a focus on choice-making is the primary emphasis in preschool, and while strategies like those identified by Brown and colleagues remain important throughout the elementary years, it is important to move beyond simply supporting choices and to begin to focus on the areas of problem-solving and decision-making as children enter the elementary school years. Early elementary age children can identify increasingly varied solutions to problems that they encounter, can implement and evaluate solutions to problems, and can begin to focus on the consequences of various alternatives available in a decision. Children in the early grades can learn simple "rules" that can guide problem solving and, later, decision-making and should be encouraged to say the rule aloud, apply it to the problem, and decide whether or not the rule points to the best solution to the problem. For example, one simple problem-solving process we have implemented uses the acronym **DO IT** (**D**escribe the problem, find **O**ptions, **I**dentify consequences, **T**ake action) to provide students a mnemonic device to remember a problem solving rule or process.

Promoting Self-Regulation. At the heart of self-regulation is the goal setting process. Students need to learn to set goals, identify steps to reach their goals, and to monitor and evaluate their progress toward those goals. The educational process is, inherently, goal oriented and provides an excellent setting in which to learn goal-directed behavior. While preschool students can learn to set some basic, achievable goals, the thrust of instructional efforts in this area should begin in the early elementary years. During these years (K – 3) teachers can work with students to more closely align their choices with individual goals. Preschool children's choices essentially reflect their wants and are rarely related to future goals or objectives (Doll, et al., 1996). During the elementary years, teachers can work with students to set simple, readily achievable goals that relate to their interests and preferences, particularly within the context of academic classwork. Although first graders can set goals and work to achieve them over brief intervals of time, they need the support of an adult to point out their incremental improvements and praise them for their successes. Without such adult direction, early elementary age students do not spontaneously engage in goal-governed actions.

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Adults should guide early elementary students in setting, monitoring, and adjusting simple goals for familiar tasks that they complete. Doll and Sands (1998) identified several *Application Principles* for use by teachers who want to promote goal oriented behaviors for students with disabilities. These include:

- At all grades, help students work towards goals that are so specific that students can determine easily whether or not they have been met.
- At all grades, assist students to set manageable goals that they are likely to reach within a defined time interval: a class period, day, week, month or semester.
- At all grades, set or help students set goals that are somewhat more challenging than you expect them to achieve.
- Set or help students set goals that make meaningful connections between their learning and their home and community lives.
- Set or assist students in setting goals that describe the processes or strategies they will use to accomplish a task or create a product.
- Plan classroom activities to provide students with opportunities to set their own goals for their learning at least some of the time.

In addition to a focus on goal setting, there are a number of self-management strategies that children can be taught that enable them to self-regulate their learning and behavior. These include self-monitoring, self-instruction, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement. Basically, these strategies teach students to do for themselves what others have previously done for them. For example, a second grade student can be taught to graph his or her progress toward a particular educational goal or objective. Students with more significant disabilities can self-monitor behavior as well through the use of simpler or more concrete ways of tracking progress (marble in glass jar upon completion of activity). There are a wide array of student-directed learning and self-management strategies that have been shown to be effective ways to promote self-regulation (Agran, 1997).

Students can begin to focus on self-advocacy skills even at this early age. Self-advocacy refers to standing up for one's own rights or for oneself. There are a variety of instructional areas that students need to learn to become self-advocating, from a knowledge of rights to learning how to negotiate and compromise. Children in elementary school can begin to learn about basic civil rights, how to communicate one's message effectively (basic communication skills), and how to listen effectively.

Promoting Self-Realization and Psychological Empowerment. Most of the efforts to promote student self-awareness and self-understanding and to foster the belief that students have control over outcomes in their lives have been described within the context of promoting previous characteristics; that is, students are provided frequent opportunities to make choices and express preferences, are involved in decisions that impact their lives, set goals that relate to things that are important to them, and are provided opportunities to learn to solve problems. The educational focus on student self-awareness must emphasize strengths and not limitations, and must not simply "force" students to accept their disability label. One way to achieve this is to focus on the uniqueness of each individual, whether they have a

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disability or not. By focusing on uniqueness, students can learn that all people have relative strengths and some areas in which they need supports. In such discussions, students should be encouraged to identify their abilities and interests and discuss how these will impact what they want to achieve. Preschoolers often have inaccurate or over-optimistic estimates of their own abilities and need opportunities to learn about how others might act or feel. Adults can encourage early perspective taking by asking preschoolers to reflect on how other people might be feeling or thinking in a given situation. It is important for older children to articulate and make explicit the match between the strategies they select to attain goals or solve problems and their own unique abilities.

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction for Early Elementary Students

We have been involved in the development of a model of instruction to enable students to become more self-determined by becoming self-regulated problem-solvers, and provide a brief description of this effort as an example of the types of activities that can be initiated to promote self-determination. This model, titled the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction*, is applicable as a means to promote self-determination for children and youth across wide ability and age ranges and across multiple environments. A full description of the model and its theoretical basis is available from Mithaug, et al. (1998) or Wehmeyer, Palmer, et al. (in press). In the last year and a half, we have been applying the model to promote the self-determination of young children with cognitive disabilities in Kindergarten through third grade.

The model was developed to provide teachers with a way to enable their students to become "causal agents" in their lives. Implementation of the model consists of a three-phase instructional process depicted in Tables 2, 3, and 4. Each instructional phase presents a problem to be solved by posing and answering a series of four *Student Questions* per phase that children learn, modify to make their own, and apply to reach self-selected goals. Each question is linked to a set of *Teacher Objectives*. Each instructional phase includes a list of *Educational Supports* identified that adults can use to enable children to self-direct learning. In each instructional phase, the child is the primary agent for choices, decisions, and actions, even when eventual actions are adult-directed.

The Student Questions in the model are constructed to direct the child through a problem-solving sequence in each instructional phase. The solutions to the problems in each phase lead to the problem-solving sequence in the next phase. Adults implementing the model teach children to solve a sequence of problems in order to construct a means-ends chain – a causal sequence – that moves them from where they are (an actual state of not having their needs and interests satisfied) to where they want to be (a goal state of having those needs and interests satisfied).

To answer the questions in this sequence, students must regulate their own problem solving by setting goals to meet needs, constructing plans to meet goals, and adjusting actions to complete plans. Thus, each instructional phase poses a problem the student must solve (What is my goal? What is my plan? What have I learned?), in turn, solving a series of problems posed by the questions in each phase. The four questions differ from phase to phase, but represent identical steps in the problem-solving sequence. That is, students answering the questions must: (1) identify the problem, (2) identify potential solutions to the problem, (3) identify barriers to solving the problem, and (4) identify consequences of each

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solution. These steps are the fundamental steps in any problem-solving process and they form the means-end problem-solving sequence represented by the Student Questions in each phase and enable the student to solve the problem posed in each instructional phase.

Table 2.

Instructional Phase 1 for Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

SET A GOAL Problem for Student to Solve: *What is my goal?*	
Student Question 1: *What do I want to learn?* Teacher Objectives • Enable students to identify specific strengths and instructional needs. • Enable students to communicate preferences, interests, beliefs and values. • Teach students to prioritize needs. Student Question 2: *What do I know about it now?* Teacher Objectives • Enable students to identify their current status in relation to the instructional need. • Assist students to gather information about opportunities and barriers in their environments Student Question 3: *What must change for me to learn what I don't know?* Teacher Objectives • Enable students to decide if action will be focused toward capacity building, modifying the environment or both. • Support students to choose a need to address from prioritized list Student Question 4: *What can I do to make this happen?* Teacher Objectives • Teach students to state a goal and identify criteria for achieving goal.	EDUCATIONAL SUPPORTS Student self-assessment of interests, abilities, and instructional needs Awareness Training Choice-Making Instruction Problem Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Goal-Setting Instruction

Table 3.

Instructional Phase 2 for Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

TAKE ACTION Problem for Student to Solve: *What is my plan?*	
Student Question 5: *What can I do to learn what I don't know?* Teacher Objectives • Enable student to self-evaluate current status and self-identified goal status. Student Question 6: *What could keep me from taking action?* Teacher Objectives • Enable student to determine plan of action to bridge gap between self-evaluated current status and identified goal status. Student Question 7: *What can I do to remove these barriers?* Teacher Objectives • Collaborate with student to identify most appropriate instructional strategies. • Teach student needed student-directed learning strategies. • Support student implement student-directed learning strategies. • Provide mutually agreed upon teacher-directed instruction. Student Question 8: *When will I take action?* Teacher Objectives: • Enable student to determine schedule for action plan. • Enable student to implement action plan. • Enable student to self-monitor progress.	EDUCATIONAL SUPPORTS Self-Scheduling Self-Instruction Antecedent Cue Regulation Choice-Making Instruction Goal Attainment Strategies Problem Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Self-Advocacy Instruction Assertiveness Training Communication Skills Training Self-Monitoring

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Table 4.

Instructional Phase 3 for Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

ADJUST GOAL OR PLAN Problem for Student to Solve: *What have I learned?*	
Student Question 9: *What actions have I taken?* Teacher Objectives • Enable student to self-evaluate progress toward goal achievement. Student Question 10: *What barriers have been removed?* Teacher Objectives • Collaborate with student to compare progress with desired outcomes. Student Question 11: *What has changed about what I don't know?* Teacher Objectives • Support student to re-evaluate goal if progress is insufficient. • Assist student to decide if goal remains the same or changes. • Collaborate with student to identify if action plan is adequate or inadequate given revised or retained goal. • Assist student to change action plan if necessary. Student Question 12: *Do I know what I want to know?* Teacher Objectives • Enable student to decide if progress is adequate, inadequate, or if goal has been achieved.	EDUCATIONAL SUPPORTS Self-Evaluation Strategies Choice-Making Instruction Problem-Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Goal-Setting Instruction Self-Reinforcement Strategies Self-Monitoring Strategies Self-Recording Strategies

Because the model itself is designed for an adult to implement, the language of the Student Questions in the model are, intentionally, not written to be immediately understandable by every child across every age range or disability level, but instead are written in first-person voice in a relatively simple format with the intention that they are the starting point for discussion between the teacher and the student. Some older students will be able to learn and use all 12 questions as they are written. Other students may need to have the questions rephrased to be more understandable. Still other students, due to the intensity of their instructional needs or their age, may need to have the teacher paraphrase the questions for them.

The first time a teacher implements the model with a child, the initial step in the implementation process will be to read the question with or to that child, discuss what the question means and then, if necessary, change the wording to enable him or her to better understand the intent of the question. Such wording changes must, however, be made such that the problem-solving intent of the question remains intact. The Teacher Objectives associated with each student question provide direction for possible wording changes. It is perhaps less important that actual changes in the words occur than that students take ownership over the process and adopt the question as their own, instead of having questions simply imposed on them. Going through this process once as the student progresses through the model should result in a set of questions that a student accepts as his or her own. The Early Elementary version of the model includes sheets which use graphics to communicate the meaning of each question as a means of enabling adults to communicate the relatively complex questions to young children.

The Teacher Objectives within the model identify the objectives an adult will be trying to accomplish by implementing the model. In each instructional phase, the objectives are linked directly to the Student Questions. These objectives can be met by utilizing strategies provided in the Educational Supports section of the model. These Educational Supports identify instructional strategies that can be implemented to assist and enable students to achieve their self-selected goals.

The characteristics of young children impact the implementation of the model with this population. As stressed earlier, young children are not ready to independently set goals, are not always accurate judges of their own strengths and limitations, may not effectively evaluate progress toward goals, and require considerable support in all these activities. The purpose of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction when used with young children is to begin to engage them in learning a process that will, in future years, result in greater capacity to solve problems, set goals and so forth. To some degree, the purpose of the model in the early years is to provide children with a systematic opportunity to participate in instructional activities that revolve around problem solving, think further about their strengths and limitations, participate in goal setting and the implementation of an action plan to achieve that goal, and engage in some rudimentary self-evaluation.

When the model was used by teachers of children with identified special needs in the second and third grades, students were able to identify problems they had experienced in their general education classes, including difficulty in writing legibly, talking loudly enough to disturb others, using punctuation in written work, and various other issues. Other students used the model to adjust environmental variables that they identified as problematic, such as identifying a quiet place to study or a time in their daily schedule to work on math with manipulative materials. Working through the Student Questions, each student was able to identify and personalize his or her own goal, discuss barriers to achieving that goal and to work with his or her teacher to identify an action plan to achieve the goal. Parents and general education teachers were supportive of the process.

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A process like the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction can be used in a variety of instructional settings to promote self-determination. It is worth noting, however, that early education programs that use child-directed philosophies and materials provide particularly fertile environments for enhancing self-determination. Montessori programs emphasize individual choice, developmentally appropriate practice, and teacher facilitation of learning activities (Epstein, Schweinhart, & McAdoo, 1996). Another example of an approach that might provide a rich context in which to enhance self-determination is the High/Scope Curriculum from the Perry Preschool Project (Weikert & Schweinhart, 1993). Within this model, children are perceived as active learners who plan, carry out activities, and reflect on these actions. Yet another example is the Reggio Emilia model (Abramson, Robinson, & Ankenman, 1995) which draws from constructivist theories like those forwarded by Vygotsky. Activities within this model are project-based, with the teacher serving both as facilitator of and partner in learning. All these models emphasize that the child is an active learner and focus on enhancing child-directed activities.

While we do not have room in the present context to discuss other 'environmental' factors that contribute to self-determination, we would note that we believe that the optimal environments in which to promote self-determination for young children with disabilities are inclusive settings, where children can learn with and from peers. Research with students with more significant disabilities has shown that even when promoting self-directed learning, there are ways to engage peers with students with disabilities that has mutual benefit (Hughes et al., 1999).

Role of Families in Promoting Self-Determination

Families are, it should go without saying, critical for the emergence of self-determination. Cook, Brotherson, Weigel-Garrey and Mize, (1996) noted that the home offers children their earliest opportunities to make choices, experience control, and exhibit competence. Home is not just a place, but also can provide a territory for ownership, the nurturing to support development, privacy, sociability, and opportunities for stimulation and manipulation.

Traditionally, the home has been the primary setting in which children learn skills like problem-solving or decision-making. They learn these, by and large, by watching their parents and other valued adults solve problems and make decisions (Wehmeyer, Morningstar, & Husted, 1999). While many family members agree they want their son or daughter to become more self-determined, there are barriers or obstacles that hinder the degree to which families may pursue these objectives. Powers and colleagues (1996) noted three such barriers:

1. uncertainty about how much self-determination they can expect from their child with a disability;
2. uncertainty about the strategies they could use to promote self-determination;
3. concern about allowing their children to take risks that will result in harm.

Issues of promoting autonomy and self-determination are often difficult for parents of young children to address. Parental concerns about safety and protection or uncertainty about the degree to which their son or daughter might be able to become more self-sufficient are concerns that, legitimately, must be addressed within the context of the family's values, cultural and ethnic priorities, and long term goals. We believe, however, that even within these parameters, most families want their child to become more self-determined. Thus, it is important to assist families to enable their child to develop self-determination related skills and to overcome the barriers that stand in the way of that outcome. Davis and Wehmeyer (1991) suggested the following ten steps for families to promote independence and self-determination, and educators could provide information like this to parents:

1. Walk the tightrope between protection and independence. Allow your son or daughter to explore his or her world.
2. Children need to learn that what they say or do is important and can have influence on others. This involves allowing risk-taking and exploration.
3. Self-worth and self-confidence are critical factors in the development of self-determination. Model your own sense of positive self-esteem to your child.
4. Don't run away from questions from your child about differences related to her disability. That does not mean, however, to focus on the negative side of the condition. Stress that everyone is individual, encourage your child's unique abilities and help him or her accept unavoidable limitations.
5. Recognize the process of reaching goals, don't just emphasize outcomes.
6. Schedule opportunities for interactions with children of different ages and backgrounds.
7. Set realistic but ambitious expectations.
8. Allow your child to take responsibility for his or her own actions...successes and failures.
9. Don't leave choice-making opportunities to chance.
10. Provide honest, positive feedback. Focus on the behavior or task that needs to be changed.

There are innumerable circumstances within the home when children can identify what they want or need to do and how they might achieve that outcome. Particularly in the preschool and early elementary years, a parent can involve children in such activities, enabling them to identify their interests, strengths and limitations, supporting them to identify a goal related to this identification process, and enabling them to take steps to achieve that goal, while engaging in some rudimentary self-evaluation along the way. Practically speaking, it is in the home where most of us learn how to set and attain goals, make decisions and express preferences. While it is important that schools focus on such issues, it is critical to do so at home, for in the end the promotion of self-determination is a family matter and families matter.

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Running Head: EARLY ELEMENTARY TEACHING MODEL

Promoting Self-Determination in Early Elementary School: Teaching Self-Regulated Problem Solving and Goal Setting Skills

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Accepted for publication with publication date and volume number

have been assigned as follows:

Palmer, S.B. & Wehmeyer, M.L. (2003) Promoting self-determination in early elementary school: Teaching self-regulated problem solving and goal setting skills. *Remedial and Special Education, 24(2)*

Abstract

Problem solving and goal setting are important components of self-determination that young people learn over time. This research describes and validates a model of teaching in early elementary grades that teachers can use to infuse these activities into existing curricula and programs. Can young children set goals for learning using the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* and can teachers implement this model in a variety of subjects and settings with students having diverse learning needs? Results show that even the youngest students (ages 5-6) were able to set goals and use the model to achieve. Teachers used the model effectively to support the investigation of student interests, facilitation of choices, and for goal setting and attainment with young children.

Promoting Self-Determination in Early Elementary School: Teaching Self-Regulated Problem Solving and Goal Setting Skills

Skills and attitudes leading to self-determination develop and emerge across the life span. Doll, Sands, Wehmeyer and Palmer (1996) examined the developmental progression of component elements of self-determined behavior and, based on those research-based findings, identified school and family-based interventions to support the development of self-determination across those age ranges. There is a growing acknowledgement that instruction to promote self-determination needs to begin early in life if students with disabilities are to leave school as self-determined young people, (Erwin & Brown, 2000; Wehmeyer & Palmer, 2000; Wehmeyer, Sands, Doll, & Palmer, 1997).

Unfortunately, the majority of instructional activities designed to promote and enhance self-determination focuses on adolescents. We have been engaged in the development and validation of a model of teaching based on our theoretical work in self-determination that will enable teachers to 'teach' students to become self-regulated problem solvers, set educational and learning goals, and self-evaluate performance toward that self-selected goal. This model was designed for use across a wide age range and provides a vehicle by which teachers of young children with disabilities can promote the acquisition and development of skills that form the foundation for the development of self-determination. This article reports an evaluation of the model's efficacy for children with disabilities in early elementary grades (K – 3).

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Joyce and Weil (1980) defined a model of teaching as "a plan or pattern that can be used to shape curriculums (long term courses of study), to design instructional materials, and to guide instruction in the classroom and other settings" (p. 1). Such models are derived from theories about human behavior, learning, or cognition and effective teachers employ multiple models of teaching, taking into account the unique characteristics of the learner and types of learning. Models constitute a basic repertoire for teaching and are designed to increase student learning and help teachers become more effective at what they do best – teach (Joyce & Weil, 1980).

The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. (Mithaug, Wehmeyer, Agran, Martin & Palmer, 1998; Wehmeyer, Palmer, Agran, Mithaug & Martin, 2000) was designed to provide a model of teaching to enable educators to teach students to self-direct the instructional process and, at the same time, enhance their self-determination. *The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* is based on the component elements of self-determination (Wehmeyer, 1999), the process of self-regulated problem solving, and research on student-directed learning. It is appropriate for students with and without disabilities across a wide range of content areas, and enables teachers to engage students in their educational programs by increasing opportunities to self-direct learning. The model is adapted from a format developed initially for adolescents (Wehmeyer et al., 2000), and the student questions and supports are identical for adolescents. However, the focus on interests and selecting goals is adapted for younger students. For students in early elementary grades (K-3), starting the process of becoming self-determined before adolescence gives added time for building the children's capacity for choice, decision making, goal setting and problem solving that are essential for later self-determination.

Implementation of the model consists of a three-phase instructional process depicted in Figures 1, 2, and 3. Each instructional phase presents a problem to be solved by the student. The student solves each problem by posing and answering a series of four *Student Questions* (per

<Insert Figure 1 about here>

<Insert Figure 2 about here>

<Insert Figure 3 about here>

phase) that students learn, modify to make their own, and apply to reach self-selected goals. Each question is linked to a set of *Teacher Objectives*. Each instructional phase includes a list of *Educational Supports* identified that teachers can use to enable students to self-direct learning.

The *Student Questions* in the model are constructed to direct the student through a problem-solving sequence in each instructional phase. The solutions to the problems in each phase lead to the problem-solving sequence in the next phase. Their construction was based on theory in the problem-solving and self-regulation literature that suggests there is a means-ends problem solving sequence that must be followed for any person's actions to produce results to satisfy their needs and interests (Bransford & Stein, 1993, Agran & Wehmeyer, 1999). Teachers implementing the model teach students to solve a sequence of problems to construct a means-ends chain – a causal sequence – that moves them from where they are to where they want to be (a goal state) (Mithaug, Wehmeyer, Agran, Martin & Palmer, 1998).

To answer the questions in this sequence, students are supported to regulate their own problem solving by setting goals to meet needs, constructing plans to meet goals, and adjusting actions to complete plans. Thus, each instructional phase poses a problem the student must solve (What is my goal? What is my plan? What have I learned?) by, in turn, solving a series of problems posed by the questions in each phase. The sequence of questions is supplemented by teacher facilitation and discussion for all model users, but especially for children in Grades K-3. The four questions differ from phase to phase, but represent identical steps in the problem-solving sequence. That is, students answering the questions will: (1) identify the problem, (2) identify potential solutions to the problem, (3) identify barriers to solving the problem, and (4) identify consequences of each solution, with teacher facilitation. These steps are the fundamental steps in any problem-solving process and they form the means-end problem-solving sequence represented by the *Student Questions* in each phase and enable the student to solve the problem posed in each instructional phase.

Younger students are able to answer the questions, as they proceed through the model, since teachers adapt these to meet the understanding and developmental needs of the student. Before beginning the model questions with younger students or students who may have difficulty understanding these basic concepts, teachers should talk about what goals are, as well as have students identify some of their interests. A general discussion about interests for the whole class can center on talking about the things that individual children prefer to do during recess, after school, or the books they might choose during picture book or free-reading time. In order to work on identifying individual student interests, teachers can use the graphic organizer in Figure 4. Students can write or draw a picture of the things that they like to do at school and at home. A teacher can then teach about goals in a general sense as "something you set out to do", using the bottom of the organizer in Figure 4 to identify several things that a child might choose to accomplish.

<Insert Figure1 about here>

The *Teacher Objectives* within the model are just that -- the objectives a teacher will be trying to accomplish by implementing the model. The objectives provide suggestions for teachers to enable and support students to work through the *Student Questions* by scaffolding instruction, using direct teaching strategies, or collaborating with students to determine the best strategies to achieve goals. In each instructional phase, the objectives are linked directly to the *Student Questions*. These objectives can be met by utilizing strategies provided in the *Educational Supports* section of the model. The *Teacher Objectives* provide, in essence, a road map to assist the teacher to enable the student to solve the problem stated in the student question. For example, regarding the first *Student Question*: What do I want to learn?, *Teacher Objectives* linked to this question comprise the activities in which students should be engaged to answer this question. In this case it involves enabling students to identify their specific strengths and instructional needs, to identify and communicate preferences, interests, beliefs and values, and to prioritize their instructional needs. As teachers use the model it is likely that they can generate more objectives that are relevant to the question, and they are encouraged to do so.

The *Educational Supports* are not actually a part of the model, per se, but are what Joyce and Weil (1980) refer to as the model's *syntax* -- how the model is implemented. However, because the implementation of this model requires teachers to teach students to self-direct learning, we believe it is important to identify some strategies and supports that could be used to successfully implement the model. The majority of these supports are derived from the self-management literature. A variety of strategies, such as choice making (Cooper et al., 1992), goal setting (Schunk, 1985; Hayes et al., 1985), communication skills training (Mandlebaum & Wilson, 1989; Kelly et al., 1979), and self-monitoring techniques (Smith & Nelson, 1997; Agran & Martin, 1987), have been used to teach students, including students with severe disabilities, how to manage their own behavior. Wehmeyer, Agran, and Hughes (1998) provided a compilation of strategies and suggestions for teaching self-determination strategies to students with disabilities.

The emphasis in the model on the use of instructional strategies and educational supports that are student-directed provides another means of teaching students to teach themselves, promoting self-determination. With the use of the *Student Questions*, students will learn a self-regulated problem solving strategy to use in goal attainment. Often, student-directed learning strategies are used in combination with teacher-direction in this model, since direct instruction may be the most effective method or strategy to use in some circumstances. One misinterpretation of self-determination is that it is synonymous with *independent performance*. That is, people misinterpret self-determination as meaning that you do everything yourself. However, causal agents do not necessarily do everything for themselves, but instead are the catalysts in making things happen in their lives. Students who are considering what plan of action to implement to achieve a self-selected goal can recognize that teachers have expertise in instructional strategies and take full advantage of that expertise.

Validation of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction. The purpose of any model of instruction is to promote student learning and growth. Thus, the first requirement of such models is that teachers can use the model to 'teach' students educationally valued skills or concepts. We have proposed in this study that the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* has the added benefit of beginning the process of becoming self-determined in grades K-3, as well as in adolescence. The studies described below have focused on ensuring that adolescents with disabilities achieve educationally-valued goals when provided instruction using the model and examining the impact of the model on student self-determination. These studies illustrate the general applicability of the model for goal-setting, problem solving, and promoting self-determination as a first step in proving the model's utility for students and teachers.

Wehmeyer, Palmer, et al., (2000) conducted a field test of the initial version of the model initially designed for adolescents with 21 teachers responsible for the instruction of adolescents receiving special education services in two states (Texas and Wisconsin). A total of 40 students (mean age = 17.23, mean IQ = 55) with mental retardation ($n = 13$), learning disabilities ($n = 17$), or emotional or behavioral disorders ($n = 10$) set goals. Using the *Goal Attainment Scaling*

(*GAS*) process (Kiresuk, Smith & Cardillo, 1994) teachers rated 55% of the goals on which students received instruction as having been 'achieved as expected' or 'exceeding expectations'. Of the remainder, teachers indicated that students 'made progress' on an additional 25% of their goal, though they did not fully achieve them, and only 20% of the goals were rated as indicating 'no student progress' on the goal. Additionally, there were significant differences in a positive direction in pre- and post-intervention scores on self-determination as measured by *The Arc's Self-Determination Scale* (Wehmeyer, 1996), a self-report measure of self-determination for adolescents and adults. This field-test indicated that the model was effective in enabling older students to attain educationally valued goals.

Agran, Blanchard, and Wehmeyer (2000) further examined the efficacy of the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* for use with 19 adolescents with severe disabilities. Unlike the previous study, the research design utilized by these researchers involved a delayed multiple-baseline across three-groups design. Students collaborated with their teachers to implement the first phase of the model and, as a result, identified one goal as a target behavior. Prior to implementing phase 2 of the model, teachers and researchers collected baseline data on student performance of these goals. At staggered intervals subsequent to baseline data collection, teachers implemented the model with students and data collection continued through the end of instructional activities and into a maintenance phase. As was the case with the field-test study, Agran and colleagues also collected data about goal attainment using the *Goal Attainment Scaling (GAS)* data were also collected, indicating 68% of the scores exceeded teacher expectations. Goals included following directions, learning academic skills, making transportation arrangements, completing vocational tasks, and improving conversational skills, to name a few. Although the population varies from the focus of the present study, the successful use of *The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* for student goal-setting is again noted.

Goal setting with younger children must support the causal link between goals and actions to accomplish goals (Doll et al., 1996). A study by Guevremont, Osne, and Stokes (1988) with three preschool children used single subject research to show positive effects of setting performance goals for two of the children. Nicholls and Miller (1983) found that children at age 5 set goals related to acquiring information rather than increasing ability. Children begin to independently set goals related to effort, ability, and task performance at age 11 or 12 years (Woolfolk, 1990). Graham & Harris (1992) suggest that young children and students with learning problems can set goals using teacher/student interaction in the process, supporting our model's use with young children.

The purpose of the present study was to evaluate the efficacy of and extend the knowledge base about the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* with teachers of early elementary students to determine the degree to which this model might enable educators to promote the development of self-determined behavior for younger children.

Method

Participants

Fourteen teachers from two states (Texas and Kansas) were recruited to implement the Early Elementary version of the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction*. Teachers were nominated to participate by school administrators and received an honorarium for their participation in the study. Students taught by these educators (n = 50) were enrolled in Kindergarten through third grade in 11 elementary schools across five school districts (1 rural, 3 suburban, and 1 urban) in the two states (Texas n = 34; Kansas n = 16). Table 1 provides information about student age, special education category, and grade. Students ranged from 5 to 9 years of age, with a mean of 7.92 years (*SD* = 1.30), and most students were receiving special

<Insert Table 1 about here>

education supports in one or more categories. Children who did not have a special education label were either in the assessment process to determine special education eligibility or were receiving math or reading enrichment services in their school. The sample included 32 male and 18 female students. The ethnicity of the students included the following: Caucasian (*n* = 23), African American (*n* = 20), Hispanic (*n* = 6), and an Asian student (*n* = 1). Data were collected during the 1998 - 1999 and 1999 - 2000 school years. Informed consent was obtained from parents of all students. Table 1 provides greater detail about student characteristics.

The 14 teachers who supported students in the study ranged in age from 26 years to 57 years of age, with a mean age of 38.78 years. All were female and had between 1 and 26 years of experience, with an average of 10.71 years teaching experience.

Procedure

Teachers who participated in the study received training from project staff on the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction*, using both large group (introduction to model) and one-to-one training. Teachers implemented the model in the manner described previously with the exception that project staff created materials that were developmentally and age appropriate, particularly with relation to supporting students to address the *Student Questions* in the model. So, for example, when teachers talked to students about their interests as a means to answer *Student Question 1*, they were provided with a *Student Interest Form* providing a structure for exploring interests (see Figure 4). Students were encouraged to discuss what they liked to do at school and at home and the teacher helped each student to complete the *Student Interest Form*.

Students were encouraged to write or draw a picture of their answers, or teachers wrote what the student dictated. Teachers also discussed the meaning of the words 'goal' and 'problem' and talked about setting goals and solving problems with the students either individually or in small groups.

Project staff supported teachers throughout the initial goal setting process by e-mail, telephone contact, and direct visits. Teachers worked directly with students on the model for approximately 2 months.

Instrumentation

The *Goal Attainment Scaling* (*GAS*) process (Kiresuk, Smith & Cardillio, 1994) was used identically in this study and the two previous adolescent studies (Wehmeyer et al., 2000; Agran et al.,2000) described earlier to measure goal attainment and to determine model efficacy. According to Carr (1979) the *GAS* "involves establishing goals and specifying a range of outcomes or behaviors that would indicate progress toward achieving those goals" (p. 89). Each student's *GAS* scale was prepared with 5 potential outcomes identified by the student and/or the teacher as soon as the individual goals were set using the model. These outcomes determine a continuum for knowing when a goal is achieved, from the most unfavorable to the most favorable outcomes on a five-point scale. The mid-point on this scale is the *expected outcome*; that is, what would teachers consider a *satisfactory outcome* from the instructional process. Using a raw-score conversion key for numerical values assigned to each outcome level for the *Goal Attainment Scaling* developed by Cardillo (1994), raw scores can be converted to standardized T-scores with a mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10 to allow comparison between goal areas and subjects, independent of the particular goal area.

When instructional activities were completed, the teacher returned to the 5 potential *GAS* outcomes and identified the outcome that most closely matched the student's actual achievement, and the researcher asked the student about their outcome. The research team talked with students and assisted them in selecting the outcome description that was closest to their perception of goal completion independent of the teacher's evaluation. Students from K-Grade 3 were able to discuss their goal progress, since they had just completed Phase 3 of the model questions, essentially a series of questions to support evaluation. Scoring based on the *GAS* process, as described previously, was then completed. Research personnel also gathered information on student knowledge about an understanding of 'goals' and 'interests' using questions asked before and after using the model. These questions were adapted from the *American Institutes for Research Self-Determination Scale* (Wolman, Campeau, Dubois, Mithaug & Stolarski, 1994). The students were asked whether they knew what the word 'interest' meant, whether they could name one of their interests, whether they knew what the word 'goal' meant, and whether they could give an example of a goal, yielding a 'yes' or 'no' response for each question.

To gather social validation information, after data collection was completed, the 14 teachers filled out a 16- item questionnaire reporting their opinions about the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction*. Students were asked how they felt about their goal outcomes.

Analyses

Goal Attainment Scaling scores were calculated and results, including the mean score and standard deviation, were determined for the overall group as well as for each grade and special education category, both for teacher and student-rated scores. A paired-sample t test was conducted to examine differences on teacher and student *GAS* scores and a chi-square was used to compare teacher-rated *GAS* scores by grade level. We examined the significance of changes between pre- and post-instruction on goal and interest questions using a paired-sample t-test for significance of changes, as well as presented the relevant data in frequency format.

Results

Model Efficacy. The mean teacher-rated *GAS* score was 52.90 (ranging from 30 – 70). The mean student-rated *GAS* score was 54.30 (ranging from 40 to 70). Both means indicate that goal attainment was, on average, at or slightly above what was expected by teachers (who determined the original outcomes). Table 2 provides *Goal Attainment Scaling* scores by grade level and special education category. In all, only 12% of teacher-rated goals were at or below 40, with 34% rated at 60 or higher, indicating that more students exceeded expectations than failed to achieve them. There were no significant differences between student and teacher *GAS* scores on a paired-sample t-test, however, the average scores for students with mental retardation were rated somewhat higher by students than by teachers. Two of the students with mental retardation rated goals identical with their teachers, four of the student ratings were only one standard deviation ($SD = 10$) above their teachers, and one student's score was 3 SD ($n = 30$) above what the teacher rating was. Each of the four grade levels (K-3) had average mean *GAS* scores greater than 50, indicating that the model was effective for younger as well as older students. There were no significant differences on *GAS* scores by grade, $X^2 = (18, N = 50) = 13.54, p = 0.76$. An analysis of *GAS* scores by goal content area also yielded no significant differences, X^2 $(24, N = 50) = 26.22, p, 0.34$. Forty-one of the students set an academic goal, nine students had a behavioral or social goal. All goals were appropriate for the particular grade level, i.e. students in Kindergarten set goals in counting, following directions, and writing names. Within academic goals, subject area goals included reading/pre-reading, ($n = 16$), math and number concepts ($n =$

<Insert Table 2 about here>

11), handwriting ($n = 9$), and spelling ($n = 5$). The model was equally effective for each of these areas, as seen in Figure 5, with all areas yielding scores above 50.

<Insert Figure 4 about here>

Goal and Interest Knowledge. Figure 6 depicts student responses to the goals and interest questions. The majority of students were able to name one or more of their own interests both

<Insert Figure 6 about here>

before and after instruction using the model, but in the three other areas students showed improvement after intervention. There were significant differences pre-and post-test, $t(49) = -2.22$, $p = .03$ (two-tailed) on the paired-samples t test for the question concerning knowledge of the meaning of the word *goal*. Students were also able to provide significantly more goal examples $t\ (49) = -1.95$, $p = .05$ (two-tailed). In addition, teachers were asked before and after using the model whether a student knew that a goal is something that you want to do or learn. Prior to the intervention, teachers indicated affirmatively (e.g., student did know) for 15 students, whereas after the intervention teachers indicated that 40 of the 50 students knew this information.

Social Validation Information. Teachers indicated that they perceived positive student changes in either behavioral or academic performance as a function of the intervention for 42 of the 50 students. All 14 teachers reported the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* was useful in their classrooms and that they would continue to use the model in their work with children. Eight of the teachers (57%) indicated they had shared information about the model with a colleague. When asked if students shared unsolicited comments about the model with them, 8 teachers (57%) reported that this had occurred. One teacher said that students having success wanted to share it, while another said that a student volunteered: "I am working on my goal!

Look here!" After completing Phase 3 of the model, students generally reported that they felt good about meeting their goals, and many students had ideas for other goals to achieve.

Another teacher whose students were working on academic subjects said her students were excited to do better in spelling and reading and had shared that information with her. This teacher had met with a small group of students to talk about "what they wanted to do or learn" in spelling or reading. Each of the students set an individual goal related to something that he or she needed to accomplish: study spelling words for 15 minutes per day and improve in spelling; learn 20 new sight words over several weeks time by reading, writing, and practicing the words in context; or working on printing words with spaces between them, rather than one long continuous stream of letters. These goals were addressed using the student questions in the model framework. Individual students had various reasons why they might have trouble accomplishing the goals, but each of the children were able to set a plan, and later, evaluate their progress using the model. One teacher who supports students in a resource setting said that she realized that she could give up some of her 'power' as a teacher and let the students have more control over what they want to do. Students typically set realistic goals that showed some perception of what they needed to accomplish, as teachers provided scaffolding for this activity. As with the two field tests described in the section concerning model validation, student goals were set in conjunction with teacher support to work on academic or social skills that were a need for the particular student. The process of working through the model questions provides both students and teachers a way to address needs, limitations, barriers to success, as well as accomplishments. When asked, even the youngest students were able to identify some particular need that aligned with standards or benchmarks for progress, either independently or with some negotiation with the teacher. Other examples of elementary goals set by students are listed in

Table 6. Although self-determination is a concept that implies independent action, only through shaping and instruction can students learn to become better choice- and decision-makers, as well as learning to problem solve and set goals.

<Insert Table 6 about here>

A teacher of younger participants said, "It was very interesting to see what my students wanted to learn at school, that they did have goals and did not come to school just 'to play'". One younger student with mental retardation set a goal to learn the symbols that were beside her name and her peers' names on class work and in storage areas. There was no particular expectation on the part of the teacher for this to happen, but the student wanted to accomplish this task and did so using the model. For example, Mary's name was followed by a flower symbol; John's name had a train beside it. The student practiced drawing the symbols in her free time with teacher guidance, learned the various symbols, and even began to learn to print each of her classmate's names as well. The student was pleased with her progress and set an additional goal about learning to print more names.

Discussion

Results from this study support the use of the Self-*Determined Learning Model of Instruction* with early elementary students. The findings from the *GAS* process indicate that students as young as five years of age can set goals and work through the model (with the assistance and support of their teachers). Teachers in early elementary grades were able to provide the support and guidance that younger children with and without identified disabilities (Title I students and students being evaluated for special needs) needed to complete such a process.

That student and teacher ratings showed no significant differences provides indirect evidence that active student involvement in the educational process, even at this young age, can assist students in evaluating their progress and potential outcomes. Although further support may be needed for young students with mental retardation in self-evaluation of accomplishments, as indicated by the variability of ratings between teachers and students within this category, this process of goal setting is still a viable option for students and teachers. The *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction* is designed such that students self-monitor progress toward their goal and self-evaluate if they are making adequate progress. If students determine that their progress is not adequate, they return to either the goal setting activities of phase 1 to revise their goal or the action planning activities of phase 2. We noted, anecdotally, that when students determined (through phase 3 self-evaluation activities) that they were not progressing on their goal, they were usually able to discuss what went wrong and what they did achieve to the same degree as the teacher could. Students told us that they did not try to work on their goal much, or that they let other activities take precedence. This was achieved by using the model questions to guide student evaluation and discussion with the teacher of what actions were taken (Phase 3, Question 9), the barriers that had been removed (Question 10), and what has changed (Question 11). The model provides a chance for students to verbalize their concerns, as well as their success, in order to move toward self-regulation and building capacity for achievement and later self-determination.

Teachers did identify some limitations to the use of the model, including the time needed to learn the model and the educational supports that are implemented through the model, as well as the need to maintain daily contact with younger students. Nevertheless, although these limitations need to be addressed to widen the appeal and utility of *Self-Determined Learning*

Model of Instruction, the overwhelming satisfaction with the model indicated by teachers described in the previous section on social validation, and the students' progress suggest that the model has potential value and utility with younger children. Study limitations include the small number of participants recruited from Kindergarten and 1st grade classes, mainly due to the smaller number of children who are identified for special education services and the small number of teachers of young students who volunteered for the project. Future studies of the model in early elementary populations must target younger students, to corroborate these results. Although recruitment efforts centered on obtaining an equal number of students in every grade, younger students were not equally available on special education lists. Also, teachers of older students were more likely to volunteer for the study, due to their understanding of the concept of self-determination.

Practical Implications

This study describes a model of teaching that teachers can use to support the development of self-determination, student involvement, and other capacity-building concepts for children in the elementary grades. It clearly indicates that young children can participate in goal selection, as well as work through the phases of the *Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction to reach goal attainment*. Children with disabilities often need extra instruction and various modifications to curricula for learning. Using this teaching model in the context of such instruction supports student-teacher dialog, plus clear expectations for learning. Further, as students and teachers work together to talk about students' goals there are numerous opportunities to promote student-directed learning activities, as well as enhancing self-regulation and self-monitoring skills. By using the teacher objectives embedded into the teaching model framework such as enabling students to identify strengths and needs, teaching students to prioritize needs, working on student-directed learning strategies, and supporting student self-evaluation, teachers can build capacity within their students while working on a contextually relevant goal that addresses an educational standard. The goal can relate to subject matter designated by the teacher, i.e. "Let's decide on a goal that will be helpful in spelling class", or can be related to an overall need for increased communication within all classes, i.e. "What about raising your hand and offering answers once/twice a day in every class?", to increase overall class participation and communication skills.

With the demands on the time of teachers, especially related to the general curriculum and the many standards and benchmarks delineated, it is difficult to fit in a separate curriculum on self-determination. One way to do this is using The Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction to integrate elements of self-determination into daily learning. Although teachers are becoming more aware of the need for including self-determination in the curricula, only a small number are actually directly teaching components of self-determination (Thoma, et al., 2002).

Teachers involved in the study provided suggestions for implementing the model with younger children. A third-grade teacher thought that students in her classroom could organize into small groups to use the model to work together and remind each other of their goal. Another teacher planned to introduce the model at the beginning of the year to help monitor progress every 6 weeks. She indicated that the model was easy to implement in conjunction with any curriculum, since various subjects can be woven into the model structure.

Another potential value for the model identified through the study was as a tool to prepare students for, and involve them in their annual IEP meeting. Active student involvement in the IEP meeting when transition goals are discussed is required by the IDEA, and by involving students in the goal setting and planning process early on, students should be better prepared to play a meaningful role when they are older (Wehmeyer & Sands, 1998). Only three of fourteen teachers in our study reported that students at their elementary school regularly attended their IEP meetings.

We believe it is important to begin to focus instructional attention on self-determination earlier, despite the fact that there are valid reasons *young* children are not seen as "self-determined." Although young children are not yet developmentally or emotionally capable of being autonomous and self-regulating, this does not abrogate the need to enable all children, including children with disabilities, to learn and develop the attitudes and abilities they will need to achieve this outcome. Self-determination may be an adult outcome, but it is only achieved if there is a lifelong focus on its development and acquisition (Sands & Wehmeyer, 1996).

It seems evident from this study that 1) involving students in setting goals, 2) helping to make students accountable for their learning through being part of the goal setting, planning, and evaluating process (model Phases 1-3), and 3) providing opportunity to evaluate progress together are valuable teaching tools. The success of the teachers and children in this study suggests that young children *can* benefit from instruction that incorporates opportunities to self-regulate problem-solving and to self-direct learning. By doing so, we better prepare our young children to become self-determined adolescents and adults.

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Author Note

Danna Yeager, Project Coordinator, was instrumental is assisting with data collection for this project and to her we extend our deepest appreciation. School districts in Texas and Kansas have our sincere thanks for their cooperation and support. This research was supported by U.S. Department of Education Grant # H024B990001 awarded to the University of Kansas. The opinions expressed herein do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the U.S. Department of Education and no official endorsement of the Department should be inferred.

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Figure 1

Phase 1 of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.

Set a Goal Problem for Student to Solve: What is my goal?	
Student Question 1: What do I want to learn? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable students to identify specific strengths and instructional needs. • Enable students to communicate preferences, interests, beliefs and values. • Teach students to prioritize needs.	Educational Supports Student self-assessment of interests, abilities, and instructional needs
Student Question 2: What do I know about it now? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable students to identify their current status in relation to the instructional need. • Assist students to gather information about opportunities and barriers in their environments.	Awareness Training Choice-Making Instruction
Student Question 3: What must change for me to learn what I don't know? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable students to decide if action will be focused toward capacity building, modifying the environment or both. • Support students to choose a need to address from prioritized list.	Problem Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Goal-Setting Instruction
Student Question 4: What can I do to make this happen? **Teacher Objectives** • Teach students to state a goal and identify criteria for achieving goal.	

Figure 2

Phase 2 of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.

Take Action Problem for Student to Solve: What is my plan?	
Student Question 5: What can I do to learn what I don't know? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to self-evaluate current status and self-identified goal status. Student Question 6: What could keep me from taking action? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to determine plan of action to bridge gap between self-evaluated current status and self-identified goal status. Student Question 7: What can I do to remove these barriers? **Teacher Objectives** • Collaborate with student to identify most appropriate instructional strategies. • Teach student needed student-directed learning strategies. • Support student implement student-directed learning strategies. • Provide mutually agreed upon teacher-directed instruction. Student Question 8: When will I take action? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to determine schedule for action plan. • Enable student to implement action plan. • Enable student to self-monitor progress.	**Educational Supports** Self-Scheduling Self-Instruction Antecedent Cue Regulation Choice-Making Instruction Goal-Attainment Strategies Problem Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Self-Advocacy Instruction Assertiveness Training Communication Skills Training Self-Monitoring

Figure 3

Phase 3 of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction.

Adjust Goal or Plan Problem for Student to Solve: What have I learned?	
Student Question 9: What actions have I taken? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to self-evaluate progress toward goal achievement. Student Question 10: What barriers have been removed? **Teacher Objectives** • Collaborate with student to compare progress with desired outcomes. Student Question 11: What has changed about what I don't know? **Teacher Objectives** • Support student to re-evaluate goal if progress is insufficient. • Assist student to decide if goal remains the same or changes. • Collaborate with student to identify if action plan is adequate or inadequate given revised or retained goal. • Assist student to change action plan if necessary. Student Question 12: Do I know what I want to know? **Teacher Objectives** • Enable student to decide if progress is adequate, inadequate or if goal has been achieved.	**Educational Supports** Self-Evaluation Strategies Choice-Making Instruction Problem-Solving Instruction Decision-Making Instruction Goal-Setting Instruction Self-Reinforcement Strategies Self-Monitoring Strategies Self-Recording Strategies

Table 1

Age, educational label, and grade of students.

Grade and Age	Learning Disability	Mental Retardation	Speech Impaired	Gifted	No Label*	Total	
K							
Age 5	1	1	0	0	2	4	
Age 6	0	0	1	0	0	1	n=5
1st Grade							
Age 6	1	0	0	0	2	3	
Age 7	0	0	0	0	3	3	n=6
2nd Grade							
Age 7	2	1	0	0	1	4	
Age 8	1	1	1	0	2	5	n=9
3rd Grade							
Age 8	5	0	2	0	1	8	
Age 9	10	3	1	2	5	21	
Age 10	1	0	0	0	0	1	n=30
Total	21	6	5	2	16	50	

* No Label indicates students who were in process of being assessed for possible special education identification or were identified for additional support for math or reading through Title 1 services.

Table 2

Student and Teacher Average Ratings of GAS on Goals Set Using the SDLMI.

Grade or Disability Category	Mean *GAS* Score* (Student Rated)	Mean *GAS* Score* (Teacher Rated)
K (n = 5)	50.00	56.00
1st Grade (n=6)	60.00	60.83
2nd Grade (n=9)	55.50	51.11
3rd Grade (n=30)	53.50	51.33
Learning Disability (n = 21)	54.28	51.66
Speech Impairment (n = 5)	59.00	63.00
Gifted (n = 2)	65.00	57.50
Mental Retardation (n = 6)	52.50	42.50
No Label (n = 16)	52.18	54.68

*Note: A *GAS* (or *Goal Attainment Scale*) converted T-score of 50 represents an acceptable outcome (that students learned the goal or skill). Scores of 40 or below indicate the student did not achieve an acceptable outcome and scores of 60 and above indicate the student's progress exceeded expectations.

Figure 7

Examples of Goals Set by Students in Grades K-3

Kindergarten	1) Learn to count to 20. 2) Learn to follow directions in school and at home. 3) Learn to write own name. 4) Learn to write symbols used by other students.
First Grade	1) Improve classroom behavior to avoid negative results. 2) Learn to read sight words in context in three stories. 3) Improve handwriting by writing numbers and letters neatly.
Second Grade	1) Follow classroom rules during general education math class. 2) Writing numbers and their names in words (e.g. 10, ten). 3) Improve spelling. 4) Use computer to write paragraphs and print them to read.
Third Grade	1) Learning math facts – multiplication. 2) Learn addition and subtraction with re-grouping. 3) Improve writing by consistent use of correct punctuation. 4) Improve grades by checking work before turning it in to teacher.

Figure Captions

Figure 1: Phase 1 of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Figure 2: Phase 2 of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Figure 3: Phase 3 of the Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction

Figure 4: Graphic organizer to explore student interests

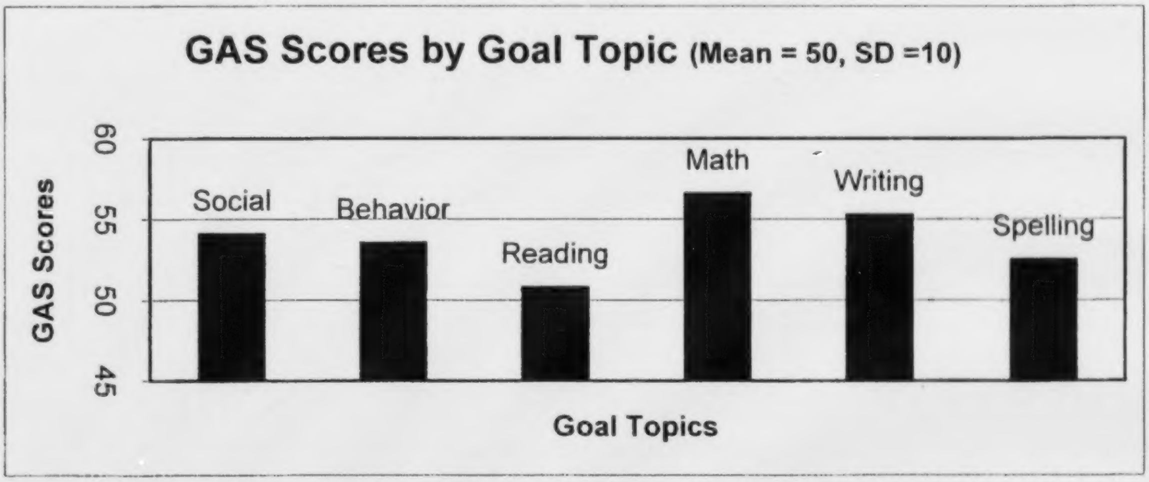
Figure 5: Goal Attainment Scale scores by Goal Topic.

Figure 6: Responses to goal and interest questions.

Figure 7: Examples of goals set by students in Grades k-3

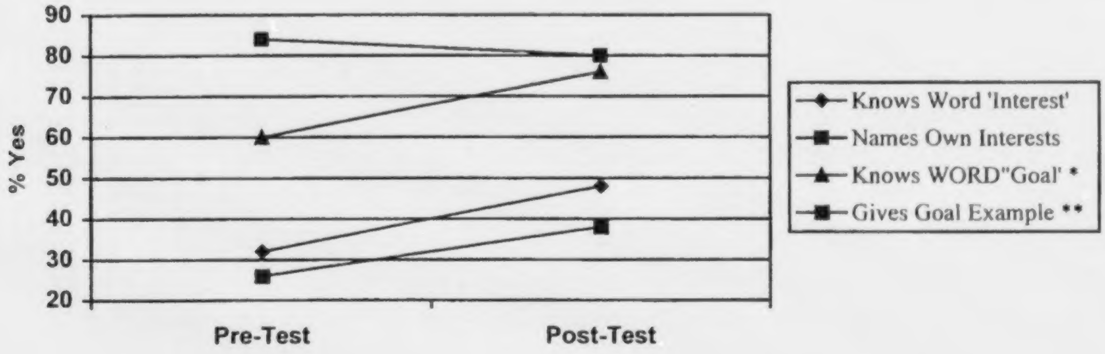
Figure 4

Figure 5



Note: Since the teachers and students both rated student goals, the scores in Figure 5 are the average of the two ratings

Figure 6



Change in Student Responses to Goal and Interest Questions

* $p = 0.03$ ** $p = 0.05$

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